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NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW

1912

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AMERICAN MUNICIPAL TENDENCIES[1]

BY CLINTON ROGERS WOODRUFF

FOR seventeen years it has been my interesting annual duty to summarize important municipal happenings, to comment on their significance and to correlate them with the modern municipal movement. The first review (that at Cleveland in 1895) occupied eight and one-half pages of the *Proceedings;* the last, (that at Buffalo in 1910) required eighty-two pages. The increase of interest and activity in other directions has been equally great; and therefore during the year just closed it has been necessary for the National Municipal League to establish a new policy to meet changed and changing conditions. To this end, the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW has been established. This publication will take the place of the annual volume of *Proceedings*, at the same time affording a more adequate opportunity for the recording and interpretation of important events. The Secretary's review will hereafter deal largely with comment, and only incidentally with facts. These will be recorded in the *Review* as they occur.

During the seventeen years of the League's activities, the most important tendency to be noted has been that toward an expansion of municipal functions, and a simplification of municipal machinery. This latter tendency has been most marked in the matter of charter revision. Each year has seen a marked increase of interest in the number of efforts to eliminate the complexities of the older charters. The movement for the establishment of commission governments in American cities owes a large part of its success (which has been as marked during 1911 as in any previous year) to the fact that it is a simple form of government, easily understood, and because it provides the short ballot and a simplified form of nomination and election.

Even in those charters which can not properly be classed as commission or semi-commission government, the same tendency is to be observed, notably in the new charters of Boston, Pittsburgh, Seattle and Los Angeles. In each of these, a small council, (nine in number) elected at large, takes the place of cumbersome legislative bodies, in some instances of two legislative bodies. The elimination of party designations and the provision for a simple form of nomination have also been chief characteristics.

Another significant feature has been the fact that in so many instances the people of a community are given the opportunity of saying whether or not they wish that particular form to be adopted; in other words, hand in hand with the simplification of form and machinery, has gone an increasing tendency towards municipal home rule, and a very considerable strengthening of the self-governing instinct and a very marked increase in the interest of the people in their local affairs.

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[1] Annual review of the Secretary of the National Municipal League delivered at Richmond, November 14, 1911.

It is unnecessary, in addressing a body like the National Municipal League, to disclaim any thought that the commission form or any form of government is in itself a panacea for municipal ills. At the same time it must be conceded that the introduction of the commission form has been accompanied by very material improvement in municipal administration in those communities where the experiment is being tried. This improvement has been most marked in the matter of finances, (which are sadly in need of attention in all American municipalities), and of certain public functions like the care and maintenance of the streets. There has also been a marked improvement in the supervision and management of municipal utilities, whether run directly by the city or by private concerns. The explanation for this lies in the fact that the responsibility is concentrated upon officials who have adequate authority to produce results, and who know that in the eye of the people they are responsible.

Bureaus of municipal research speak with aptness and propriety of the necessity of a "mayor's eye" which shall be all-seeing and far-seeing, and which shall be directed to all phases of municipal administration. Highly important though the "mayor's eye" is, still more important has been the "public eye," which has gained in strength and clarity with the growth of a sound educated public opinion in municipal affairs.

In no one field has this "public eye" been more conspicuously developed than in the matter of municipal utilities franchises. When the League first began the agitation for a more rigid enforcement of franchise laws and demanded a more adequate supervision of them in the interests of the whole people, there was very little interest manifested. The suggestion that franchises should be granted for short terms, with increased power of supervision in the hands of the city authorities, received scant public support. Thanks to the very active agitation which has been carried on in the intervening period, the insistence on long-time franchises no longer prevails; and we find corporations, civic organizations and public officials uniting for the drafting of franchise ordinances that will at one and the same time serve the ends of the public, guarantee a safe return on a reasonable valuation of the investment, and subserve the convenience of the users of the utility.

While it is quite true (as the governor of Wisconsin pointed out in a recent address) that the public interest has always in the eye of the law justified regulation in behalf of the people as a whole, nevertheless the tendency for many years was to disregard the public and its interests, on the principle that it had no rights which a corporation was bound to respect. A change is coming over the public officials, who more and more regard themselves as *public* officials, and, as such, public stewards; and a change is being manifested on the part of the managers of the corporations, who no longer strive to see how little they can give the utility using public in exchange for the rates which they pay.

Some idea of the growth of the movement for an adequate supervision of franchises in the interests of the public, may be gathered from the fact that today there are fourteen cities with utility commissions possessing regulatory powers over organizations supplying electric, gas, transportation, telephone and water service. Five years ago there were only two states that had such commissions—Massachusetts and New York. Twenty-seven states now have commissions exercising a control of varied degree over one or more classes of utilities, steam railroads included. These figures indicate in a marked manner the trend of legislation. It is apparent, as a well-known utilities expert[2] recently pointed out, that regulation of public utilities "has emerged from the domain of discussion and experiment into accepted practice."

I can best put the new attitude toward franchises by quoting from a recent letter from Stiles P. Jones, of the Minneapolis Voters' League. Mr. Jones has been in the forefront of the franchise fight in that community, and speaks out of long experience, deep convictions, and sincere devotion to public interests. He puts the situation thus:

> The more interested and better informed along franchise lines are realizing more strongly all the time the importance of franchises in directing the political life and the municipal development of a community. People are understanding that the public service companies are powerful in forming political opinion, and in shaping the community life along political lines. I think the public here is convinced that the following essentials of a public service franchise must be maintained in all future contracts:
>
> Short term franchises—twenty-five years or less—with possibly the acceptance of the Wisconsin idea of indeterminate franchises eventually, but not until the public is better educated along this line, and state political conditions are bettered.
>
> The necessity of guarding all franchises by rigorous regulation to prevent undue exploitation of the community and abuses and extravagances of management. The need of a provision giving the city the right to purchase on reasonable notice as a means of preventing abuses of management, overcharges and pernicious political activity.
>
> The necessity of thorough-going publicity of the affairs of all public service companies.
>
> The necessity of some form of municipal supervision of the relations of the company to its employes, both as to wages and hours of service.
>
> The necessity of frequent revision of rates of service in the case of gas and electric lighting utilities.
>
> An insistence that the public service companies shall bear their full share of the burden of local taxation.

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[2] Arthur S. Huey, of H. M. Byllesby and Company.

The necessity of a definitely understood valuation of the properties of all public service companies, for the purpose of securing fair taxation, as a factor in rate making, and as a basis for proper valuation in the event of purchase by the city.

The necessity of public supervision of the relation of the companies to their patrons in the matter of extensions of service and other details of management.

The necessity of public supervision of bond and stock issues as a means of protecting the public against overcapitalization.

The growth of public functions has of necessity made for the establishment of the merit system. Naturally, the politicians fight, with all the resources at their command, every proposed extension of the idea, as they realize that when the monopoly of office and the monopoly of nomination are taken from their control, no small part of their power and influence will be destroyed. The growth of municipal functions, however, has been so rapid as to necessitate departures from the old spoils system and the selection of men because of their ability to discharge the increasingly difficult and numerous functions of municipal life. So we find the civil service movement growing, and developing throughout the country; and, where it has been longest established, we find efforts made to improve its efficiency.

Unquestionably, the most important happening in this field during 1911 has been the defeat of the effort to undermine the civil service system of Greater New York. Coincident with the change in the political complexion of the state of New York there was an effort made to break down the civil service law in as many ways as possible, due, no doubt, to the overwhelming desire for office on the part of those who did not realize that the old shibboleth, "to the victor belong the spoils," was no longer so potent. The people are awakening to the fact that the offices are created to serve them and their interests, rather than those of political organizations.

So strongly expressed was the public sentiment against the change that the sponsors for the so-called "Gaynor charter" receded from their opposition and agreed to eliminate all changes in the civil service system from the charter. This was but the forerunner of the end, the charter failing through the inability of its sponsors to dragoon a sufficient number of the members of the senate into line to secure its passage. The attitude of those senators of the dominant party who stood out against the manipulation and chicanery of politicians desiring to make use of the opportunity to build up their fortunes at the expense of the public, is deserving of the highest praise and represents a civic achievement of far-reaching importance.[3]

In this connection it is important to point out that the organization of public opinion was effected through the leadership of the civic organizations of New York City. Governor Dix likewise deserves a share of praise for insisting that he would approve no bill, unless there had been an opportunity for the people to express their views upon it. To offset this action of the governor, the dates of the hearings and of the reconvening of the legislature, were fixed at a time when it was expected that public sentiment would be most lethargic and the active leaders away on a well-earned vacation. The civic workers, however, were on guard and at once converted the hearings into real hearings, and forced the issue home upon the people. The response was immediate, and afforded a substantial tribute to the generalship of the leaders of the movement. As in all similar undertakings, there was not only the enemy in front to be engaged but the misguided zeal of allies to be diverted into the right channels. The fact that the complete defeat of the charter was accomplished, through the coöperation of the secretaries of such organizations as the City Club and the Citizens' Union of New York, is one of the most effective arguments that can be advanced for the maintenance of bodies like that.

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[3] See "The defeat of the Tammany Gaynor Charter" *infra*.

Returning to the subject of civil service reform, the most important developments of 1911 in New York City, other than the one just mentioned, were the resignation of Police Commissioner Cropsey which came as the direct result of a violation of the civil service law in making the appointments of patrolmen, and the filling of the position of chief of the fire department by competition. This competitive examination was considered by civil service reformers the most important competitive examination ever held in this country; and its charter and its conduct aroused much favorable comment. Following a policy laid down by Mayor Gaynor early in his administration, that appointments to positions in the competitive class should be made from the eligible lists in numerical order, the examination resulted in the appointment of Deputy Chief Kenlon, who stood at the head of the list.[4]

Numerous commission charters adopted during the past year contain civil service provisions; with the exception, however, of the Oakland charter none of these is at all adequate to accomplish their purposes. This fact is referred to because a great many communities think if they use the words "civil service" in a provision that they have secured civil service reform, overlooking that even after the most carefully drawn provisions are engrafted on a charter the merit system has only been part way inaugurated. Such enactments must be followed up by the appointment of conscientious officials to enforce the law irrespective of politics; and these men must in turn have the coöperation of appointing officials who will not create unnecessary vacancies or hamper the effective operation of the law.

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[4] In New Jersey, the submission to the people of the respective divisions by referendum of the question of adopting the provisions of the state civil service law for Newark, East Orange, and Essex County, resulted in the acceptance of the law by large majorities. At the general elections of the fall in Detroit, a charter amendment, providing for a civil service system for that city, was accepted by an overwhelming majority. The Michigan supreme court, however, held the submission of this amendment to the charter, to be illegal on the grounds that the Detroit charter was not drafted under the provision of the home rule act and that it could not, therefore, be amended piecemeal. An effort to break down the civil service system established in Cleveland under the Paine act, was frustrated through recourse to the courts, who held that the attempt *via* "emergency appointments" was illegal. Several attempts were also made to amend the Boston charter, so as to weaken the powers which the state civil service commission now exercises over appointments to the city service; but all these amendments were defeated.

I have referred at such length to the establishment of the merit system because it is a component part of the movement to meet the modern demand for efficiency. If our cities are to be reorganized along the lines advocated by bureaus of municipal research and similar institutions, they must begin with a complete reorganization of the civil service of the communities. It must be placed upon an absolute merit basis, all questions of politics and religion being completely eliminated; and provision must be made for the making of the service as a career. Moreover, adequate provision must be made for the selection and retention of municipal experts.[5]

An integral part of the movement for the promotion of efficiency in municipal administration has been the establishment of the series of bureaus of municipal research in the leading cities of the country: New York, Philadelphia, Chicago, Cincinnati, Milwaukee, Hoboken, Boston, Memphis, Walla Walla, Pittsburgh. Their work has already been adequately described in previous reviews. There has been no diminution in their activities; although there is a tendency on the part of some of their advocates to overstress the importance of accounting as a means of reorganizing municipal administration. The National Municipal League for upwards of a decade has insisted upon the necessity, not only for uniform accounting and reporting, but for the coördination of financial with physical statistics as a basis for the determination of cost and as a means for increasing efficiency. At the same time, it seems a mistake to claim, as a recent writer did, that "accounting ought to commend itself to advocates of better administration as being the *only* means of identifying results and making remedies effective."

Municipal taxation has been receiving attention in some places but nothing like what its importance demands. If the financial systems of our cities are to be reorganized, so must the systems of taxation. The National Municipal League has undertaken, through a committee on excess condemnation and unearned increment, to study and if possible develop a working plan for the solution of certain phases of the financial situation. Still more thorough-going and comprehensive study, however, is necessary to enable municipal officials to meet the demands upon them for funds to inaugurate the improvements demanded by a constantly developing municipal spirit.

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[5] This latter subject is one to which the League has been giving attention during the past year through a joint committee of the League and of the National Civil Service Reform League. Its preliminary report at this meeting will show what needs to be done to destroy the virus of the spoils system, and to establish the public service upon a basis of efficiency, honesty and integrity.

Several states made important changes in their systems of taxation during the past year, some by constitutional amendments; and others by statutes. In the main these changes conform to recommendations of economists and investigating commissions for the past quarter of a century, and in some cases are the direct result of recommendations formulated by the conferences on state and local taxation that have been held annually since 1907.

California adopted a constitutional amendment in October that changes entirely the taxation of public service corporations and also practically establishes a separation of state and local revenue. This amendment provides for the state taxation of public service corporations on their gross earnings and the exemption of their operating property from local assessment and taxation, and provides also for a specific tax on banks and insurance companies. Pennsylvania has the same general system of taxing corporations, but in that state the system developed with the growth of corporate enterprise while in California it involved a radical change in fiscal policy.

The constitutional convention of Arizona adopted, as part of the new constitution, a tax provision recommended by the National Tax Association and designed to permit the classification of property for taxation. Oregon, however, defeated two amendments repealing the present provisions requiring uniformity and permitting classification of property; and adopted an amendment proposed by initiative petition and designed to provide county option in taxation. This amendment provides also that no tax legislation shall become effective until ratified by the people at the next general election and that any measures so ratified, as well as other tax laws enacted under initiative petition, shall be effective regardless of any constitutional provision.

Administrative changes made in several states have been generally in the direction of more effective supervision by a state board over local assessments. Three states have established permanent tax commissions this year[6] and the powers of existing commissions in several other states have been increased. These changes are due rather to the necessity of improving the efficiency of administration than to a mere desire for centralization. Local assessment, outside of some of the larger cities, is inefficient chiefly because there is not sufficient work in a small district to justify the employment of a competent assessor for his full time. Consequently, the work is done in an unsystematic and casual fashion. And this local system remains much the same as a century ago, while the great increase in property values, and the complex character of modern industry, have increased enormously the problem of equitable assessment.

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[6] Colorado, New Hampshire, North Dakota.

New York has made radical changes in the method of assessing real estate outside of the cities, without changing the personnel of the assessing force. The separate assessment plan used in New York City has been extended to all cities in the state, and provision has been made whereby assessors, even in country districts, may adopt tax maps and assess by a lot and block system. Another statute directs the state comptroller to compile annually statistics relating to local taxes and expenses and the provisions for sinking funds. This will furnish information which no state now has in a complete and accessible form.

The improvements in administration secured in New York are largely the outcome of a state conference on taxation held at Utica last January and attended by members of boards of supervisors, assessors, mayors and other officials. The results of that meeting indicate the practical value of meetings designed to bring together those directly interested in civic problems and to obtain an agreement upon the details of desired legislation and administrative improvement.

In the field of electoral reform the most important event of the year, possibly, has been affirmation of the constitutionality of the recall by the supreme court of Texas. A year ago the policy of the then existing school board in Dallas running counter to the formally and persistently expressed wishes of the parents of the city, a recall election was held, and those members of the board, who were obstructing the wishes of the electorate, were recalled and others chosen to their places. The offending superintendent of schools was then dismissed; whereupon he and one of the recalled members sought an injunction to restrain the new board from discharging its duties on the ground that the recall provision of the charter was illegal and unconstitutional. The lower court refused to grant the injunction, a decision which the Supreme Court has just affirmed. In its opinion the court said: "The people of the city of Dallas were invested with the sovereign power of the city by virtue of the grant of the charter to them, and the legislature has the power to grant to them the right to remove, by process of the recall provision, any officer who failed to discharge his duty in a manner satisfactory to the people of that city." Section 7, Article XV of the Texas constitution, provides that the legislature shall provide by law for "the trial and removal from office of all officers of the state, the mode for which has not been provided in the constitution." It was urged that the recall violates that provision because no trial is given. The court answered that contention by saying it applies specifically to "officers of the state," and holds that that expression has the same significance as "state officer." The members of the city board are not State officers and that provision does not apply, and that relating to county officers in Article V, Section 24, was held not to be applicable, because of the school board are not county officers.

One of the justices (Dibrell, J.) dissented from the majority of the court considering the questions presented in this case of great importance, calling for a construction of more than one provision of the constitution of the state, and affecting the form of government, and claiming that the recall provision was repugnant to Article IV, Section 4, Federal Constitution, which provides: "The United States shall guarantee to every state in this Union a republican form of government." In answer to this the majority quoted Jefferson's definition of a republican form of government and apply it to the recall provision of the city charter. And in this connection the court said with great significance:

> The policy of reserving to the people such power as the recall, the initiative and referendum, is a question for the people themselves in framing the government or for the legislature in the creation of municipal governments. It is not for the courts to decide that question. We are unable to see from our viewpoint how it can be that a larger measure of sovereignty committed to the people by this method of government and a more certain means of securing a proper representation in any way militates against its character as a republican form of government, and that it is thereby rendered in any sense obnoxious to the provisions of the Constitution of the United States. And it finds that Mr. Jefferson's definition fits the recall, for it gives the people a greater voice in their own government.

This decision is likely to have a far-reaching influence for there has been a very considerable element among Texas publicists who have maintained that the recall was a non-essential element of the commission form of government and moreover was unconstitutional. The Texas court, composed of old line Democrats, has held otherwise on this latter point and would seem to have established a precedent of great importance on the broad questions involved.

There was one feature of the recent Seattle recall election to which little or no public attention was given; and yet it was a most significant one. It will be remembered that the sitting mayor resisted the petitions by legal proceedings. He fought every step of the way. In the Superior Court the question of the constitutionality of the law was raised. On this point the Judge, R. B. Albertson, said:

> The question has been raised as to the constitutionality of the action of the city council in submitting the recall charter amendment by resolution and not by ordinance. The statements of the corporation counsel indicate that the resolution of the city council would be sufficient; it would require a very technical ruling to decide to the contrary, and would place

the power in the hands of the city council to thwart the will of the people. The Supreme Court has construed the Act of 1903 making the law valid as to this objection.

This court cannot pass upon all the intricate questions involved on the spur of the moment. *Where there is any doubt in the court's mind as to the charter provisions it ought to be decided in favor of the free expression of the popular will.*

Again it is suggested by the relator that the expense of such recall election should be avoided, in view of the questions involved and uncertainty as to legal procedure, but the courts cannot consider the matter of expense that is authorized by law. The people have adopted the charter amendment, recognizing this expense, and it is not for the court to say no.

It is refreshing and encouraging to note this preference of the people's rights and wishes to strained technicalities.

There has been an increasing tendency during the past year to use the direct primary laws. Heretofore in many communities, once enacted the primary laws were left to the organization politicians for their use and benefit; but this year, in two of the largest cities of the country, Philadelphia and Chicago, the primary laws were used with great effect to defeat undesirable candidates. In speaking of the Chicago primary, Dr. Graham Taylor said that "from every point of view, any way you look at it, the people had their own way the first chance they had to take it by the primary. They vindicated their right to direct primaries." The common opinion in Chicago was that the direct primary was an excellent thing and gave the people a choice and a better candidate than the old convention system. There was some justified grumbling about the necessity of having to vote so often. This, however, is due not to the primary but to the number of elections. There should be only annual elections, which would mean an annual primary and the incident qualification. Frequent elections and complicated election machinery help the practical politician and embarrass the unprofessional citizen. The line of progress is in a simplification of the machinery, a reduction of the number of elections and of the number of offices to be filled by a public vote. The short ballot sentiment continues to grow; but the enactment of it into law seems slow.

To revert to the Chicago primary, there is no question that a candidate under such a law is subjected to a much more severe test than formerly. Politicians complained that a candidate's reputation was pretty sure to be torn to pieces and some of his own party disgruntled, by the time he got through the primary election, and that the expense and labor were doubled. There is no doubt that in the Chicago campaign very large sums of money were expended. There is reliable information to the effect that none of the candidates spent less than $150,000 and that the successful candidate of one of the parties spent about $200,000. A third candidate, who was comparatively unknown to the public, spent a very much larger sum than this, the single item of lithographs and signs costing $75,000. The remedy for this particular difficulty lies in the direction of restricting the amount to be expended by individuals for election expenses.

As to the matter of reputation, if a man's character will not bear the strain of two elections, how can one expect it to stand the strain of a term of public office? If a primary law results in weeding out men whose character is unable to bear the strain, it will have served a useful purpose.

In Philadelphia the primary law certainly eliminated the less desirable candidates and gave to the voters of the city at the general election two clean men representing a material improvement over previous conditions and who, as a result of the ante-primary as well as of the ante-election campaign, were compelled to pledge themselves definitely on important public questions as to much needed reforms.

In connection with the San Francisco primary, the principle of the majority vote was tried with excellent results. Mr. James Rolph, Jr., the successful candidate, having received a majority of the votes cast at the primary, was forthwith declared elected mayor of the city, without the necessity of going a second election. All other candidates who received a clear majority at the primary were likewise declared elected; so that on November 7 there was an election only for those offices the candidates for which failed to receive a majority. This is another step in the direction of simplification.

Socialist mayors, village heads and officials have been elected in a long list of communities within the past two years.[7] Some of these are out and out Socialist victories but the great number of them have been made possible by the votes of non-Socialists disgusted with local conditions. The San Francisco Socialist Party platform is a fair sample of their propaganda:

> Pledging ourselves to a real working *class* administration in this city, the Socialist party presents to the workers the following program as measures to defend or advance the interests of labor. We realize, however, that all such measures are only a part of the legislation needed by labor in its daily warfare with capitalism, and we pledge ourselves to every remedial measure that will aid the workers industrially or politically, or in any way advance the cause against mammon, human life against graft and

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[7] Berkeley, Pasadena, Neiderland, California, with a contest in San Bernardino; Victor, Colorado; Coeur d'Alene, Idaho; O'Fallon, Granite City, Davis, Spalding, Illinois; Girard, Curransville and Arma, Kansas; South Frankfort (village president), Greenville and Flint, Michigan; La Porte, Ten Strike and Two Harbors, Minnesota; Cardwell and Minden, Missouri; Butte, Montana; Beatrice, Red Cloud and Wymore, Nebraska; Manitowoc, Green Bay (town Chairman) and Brantwood, Wisconsin.

Some 75 other officials were elected in these and other towns. Partial victories were won by the Socialists in Bennington, Vermont; Muscatine, Iowa; Helena, Montana; and Kalamazoo, Michigan.

greed, of freedom of thought and speech and deed against every device of the despoiler and the despot. We pledge our candidates to the following measures:

1. A universal maximum work day of not more than eight hours.
2. Immediate relief for the unemployed by giving them employment on useful public work at union wages for union hours.
3. The most improved sanitary shop and housing conditions.
4. The strict enforcement of adequate child labor legislation.
5. Adequate provisions for free public employment agencies and the abolition of private employment agencies and kindred forms of grafting on the workers.
6. Adequate provisions for the education of all children. This to include free text books and free mid-day meals.
7. The abolition of the "third degree" and similar forms of police outrages.
8. The collective municipal ownership of all public utilities as an inevitable part of the general Socialist program to transfer the ownership of the means of production to the working class.

This platform is one, to most planks of which the average municipal progressive could give conscientious adhesion, but for the introduction of the word "class" in the first line. This is a divisive word and tends to create class distinctions, rather than that community spirit and life which is essential to the development of the modern city.

Instances may be cited from the present Milwaukee administration toward men sincerely interested in the welfare of Milwaukee and desirous of coöperating with established authorities in their efforts to carry out the constructive reforms pledged in their platform, to illustrate that the Socialists regard themselves as being apart from the common life of the city.

Notwithstanding shortcomings in the way of community courtesies and life, the Seidl administration has been honest and fairly efficient. Although it has made some serious mistakes, as was to be expected under the circumstances of being entrusted with the administration of a great city in the face of high expectations excited by a long discontented people, it has adopted many useful, constructive measures. It is difficult to get at the real facts of the situation, however, and estimate the value of the Socialist contribution to municipal development. On the one hand the anti-Socialist press is extreme in its denunciation of and criticism of the Socialist administration, and unfair in the extreme in commenting upon its activities. On the other hand, we have the bitter abuse and constant insults that have appeared in the columns of the *Social Democratic Herald*, the recognized organ of the Socialist propaganda, some of which have been over Victor Berger's own signature, which make it difficult if not impossible for other than Socialists to support its candidates and propaganda in the future, unless the electorate should be confronted with a choice between serious evils, of which the support of the Socialists might be the lesser.

In still another direction the divisive effect of the Socialist propaganda is illustrated. The Socialist members of the last session of the Wisconsin legislature fought bitterly the nonpartisan city government and majority rule measures advocated by the civic bodies of the city, and eventually defeated them. Such an attitude, coming at a time when party lines are being broken down in municipal elections, and when party designations are being eliminated from the official ballots in a most satisfactory way—is a step in the wrong direction.

It is really too soon to estimate at its true value the Socialist movement in the cities. The tendencies that have herein been indicated are dangerous ones, if allowed to go unchecked. However, if the Socialists place the emphasis upon the many excellent features of their platform, and eliminate the idea of class distinctions, and will offer to work with all other citizens irrespective of party who have for their object the advancement of high ideals in city life, they will contribute an earnestness and an aggressiveness of great value. Although uniformly opposing the introduction of the commission form of government on the ground that it is anti-Socialist, this attitude has not prevented them from turning in and seeking to elect their members to office after commission government had been determined upon. (See appendix to this article.)

To date, the largest contribution of women has been in the direction of improving the municipal housekeeping. They are busily engaged in an ever-increasing number of cities in beautifying the outward appearance and improving the conditions of the streets, the grounds and living conditions generally. In fact, it may be noted that the entrance of women into the housekeeping of cities is one of the cheering developments of the decade. Their practical, though unofficial, participation in the management of municipal affairs, is helping increasingly to make American cities more desirable places of residence. They are not, however, confining themselves to efforts at adornment and housekeeping, but are taking a larger part in public affairs, both as intelligent and effective agitators, and as candidates for office.

I have attached as a footnote to this address a list of the cities in which women have been elected to office. It is an interesting exhibit, provocative of thought as to future developments and to be considered as illustrating the growing influence of women in municipal affairs rather than the Hunnewell incident, which is more or less of a tempest in a tea-pot and regarded as a jest by those who are familiar with the situation.[8]

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[8] List of cities in which women hold municipal offices:

California: Los Angeles, woman police officer; Long Beach, special police officer; San Diego, director of playgrounds.

Colorado: Pueblo, auditor; Leadville, treasurer; Telluride, treasurer; Idaho Springs, treasurer; Greeley, treasurer; Fairplay, treasurer; Ridgeway, treasurer;

Investigation has been the order of the day in numerous communities. Philadelphia has had a legislative committee engaged, with the coöperation of a citizens' committee, in delving into the mysteries of Philadelphia politics and the methods which have made a few contractors and officials quickly rich. It has aroused a public sentiment that will be intolerant of half-way measures. One of the important outcomes of the investigation will be, no doubt, the enactment of more rigorous inspection laws and giving to the controller of the city larger powers of independent investigation of municipal contracts.

Chicago is investigating, through its civil service commission, charges of graft in the police department and the alleged systematic extension of protection to favored vice concessionaires.

Grafting is becoming unpopular as people come to know more about it. As I have pointed out on more than one occasion, the revelations, while disgusting, are important and encouraging, because they reveal conditions which an enlightened public sentiment promptly seeks to correct and eliminate. Hand in hand with the disclosure of conditions, both through official and unofficial means, is the movement for the education of the peo-

Montrose, treasurer; Colorado Springs, city clerk; Durango, alderman; Alma, clerk, treasurer; Aspen, clerk; Las Animas, city clerk; State, regent State University; three representatives in Colorado legislature, member penitentiary and reformatory board of commissioners, member advisory board Juvenile Improvement Association, member Colorado civil service commission.

Idaho: State superintendent, public instruction.

Illinois: Carlyle, deputy tax collector; Chicago, superintendent of schools; Evanston, justice of the peace; Springfield, school board; Oak Park, two women on school board; Geneva, matron, woman's industrial prison.

Iowa: At the last election 46 counties out of 99 chose women as county superintendents of schools.

Kansas: Hunnewell, mayor; Rosedale, treasurer; Sapulpa, patrol woman.

There have been at least 20 women mayors in Kansas. The first was Mrs. Salter of Argonia, elected in 1889.

Kentucky: Lexington, member of board education.

Louisiana: New Orleans, Parish, factory inspector.

Massachusetts: West Springfield, member of school board.

Michigan: Flint, school board.

Missouri: College Mound, members of town board.

New Jersey: Glen Ridge, West Orange, school boards (1911); Yardley, member board of education.

New York: Elmira, city bacteriologist.

Ohio: Factory inspectors.

Oregon: Astoria, city health officer.

Washington: Tacoma, public morals officer, city food inspector (1911).

Wisconsin: Milwaukee, member of school board (1911).

Wyoming: Member house of representatives, state superintendent of public instruction (1911), county superintendent of schools, Albany County, county clerk, Albany County, justice of the peace, Albany County.

ple in higher standards of personal and public conduct. So long as people are tolerant of these methods in personal and private business, so long as they are willing to wink at corruption if it tends to their own advancement or adds to their own bank account, so long will they be equally tolerant of evil conditions in the cities. Whatever tends to raise the standards of private morality, to improve business ethics, to that extent helps in advancing the cause of public morals. Whatever tends to develop a community life, to make the citizens proud of the city and its achievements and to love it for its own sake irrespective of what it may individually profit them—tends also to the solution of the city problem and to the creation of more wholesome conditions of life in our cities.

The saner Fourth, the pageant of Thetford[9] the "welcome feast" at Rochester, the various municipal congresses and expositions, the adoption by cities of mottoes like the following: "Look up and not down; look out and not in; look forward and not back; and lend a hand" (as Buffalo has done)—all tend to develop a city life, sane and wholesome. Publicity is another factor that is aiding mightily in the exposure of wrongdoing and in the establishments of new and better models of conduct. The publicity showered upon the provisions of the Tammany-Gaynor charter helped bring it into discredit and eventually to defeat it.

Another phase of the movement for publicity is the establishment of city papers by cities in their interests; to inform the citizens and taxpayers about their government and its activities; and, development and interests of other cities. A number of such papers are now being published, with great success and benefit to the localities concerned. Some are monthly, some weekly, some daily. Some have a paid subscription list; some are circulated free to all taxpayers and officials, or to all who will request them and send the necessary postage.[10]

From these several instances it is plain to be seen that a new spirit is abroad which argurs well for the future. There is a new sense of responsibility and responsiveness which promises a higher standard of municipal efficiency in the not far distant future. When city officials feel the need for giving an accounting of their stewardship and when they begin to catch the spirit and to translate it into language and signs that he who runs may read and understand, then we may, with appropriateness, announce the dawning of a new day of municipal advance.

There has been a steady increase in the number of effective organizations and in the spirit of coöperation among existing organizations; and, moreover, there is a satisfactory growth in the number of competent, capable men who are devoting their lives to the direction of the affairs of such organizations. In fact, the Civic Secretaries Committee of the National Municipal League represents one of the most significant developments of the past two years. The civic secretary is assuming a position of prominence, influence and helpfulness, and becoming a career for the public-spirited men who desire to devote themselves to public affairs. The next step in the development must be the provision for their adequate compensation and an assurance of the future. One reason why the stay of young men in civic positions has heretofore been so short is the fact that the compensation has been moderate and there has been no assurance as to the future.

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[9] See short article on this, *infra*.

[10] Denver, Philadelphia, Houston, Spokane, Boston, San Francisco—all have these papers; and Los Angeles is now planning to establish a municipal daily newspaper.

City plans and programs are increasing in number and effectiveness. The Third National Conference on City Planning, held in Philadelphia in May last, was an event marking great advance in the movement for intelligent, definite planning for American cities. In connection with this conference there was an exhibition similar to those recently held in Berlin, Düsseldorf and London. The exhibition clearly showed the American public how much in the way of the improvement of American cities had been and was being accomplished. It also showed what foreign countries had done along similar lines. Boston-1915 is a concrete illustration of definite planning for city coöperation on a large scale. It has a definite plan for its entire work, and a definite program for each year.[11]

After all is said, however, the most notable tendency in American municipal life is that toward hopefulness. The men who bewail existing conditions and close their eyes to the work that is being done to improve them, are diminishing in number. There is a general recognition, to be sure, that municipal administration has not heretofore been a striking success; but that is largely a thing of the past. As Mr. James Bryce said, in his address before the New York City Club last spring:

> Your administration is becoming more and more of a business administration, certainly in this city, than ever before, and that is generally true of cities all over the Union. Everywhere men are coming to see the importance of fixing responsibility upon definite persons. That is the meaning of the tendency to adopt the commission form. In that respect your forms of government are far better over the country at large than they used to be . . . . The same phenomenon which you see here is visible to the observant traveler. In all the largest cities where I have been honored by being the guest of chambers of commerce and civic clubs and citizens' associations, I have found organizations in which good citizens have banded themselves together, supplementing the defects of their local municipal government by making themselves the organs of an alert and enlightened public opinion, stirring up the spirit of the people and impelling by the pressure of opinion the municipal authorities toward the improvements that are needed. In nearly all the cities the sky is brighter, the light is stronger.

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[11] See article of James P. Munroe, *infra*.

A new spirit is rising. The progress you may expect to see in the elevation and purification of your city government within the next twenty or thirty years may well prove to be greater and more enduring than even that which the last forty years have seen.

APPENDIX

The following is a list of Socialist officials elected on November 7. It was compiled by a leading Socialist from press reports, which have not in all cases been verified. A revised list will be compiled later. According to the same authority some 500 Socialist officials, most of whom were chosen in the spring, were already in office when the November elections were held:

CONNECTICUT

Bridgeport—1 alderman.

INDIANA

Diamond—full ticket (except clerk).
Farmersburg—marshal.
Normal City—trustee.
Shelburn—secretary-treasurer, trustee.
Spencer—marshal.
Staunton—trustee, clerk, treasurer, marshal.

KENTUCKY

Newport—commissioner.

MASSACHUSETTS

A member of the legislature (from Haverhill).

MICHIGAN

Kalamazoo—councilman.
Saginaw—3 ward commissioners.

MINNESOTA

Crookston—Mayor, 1 alderman.

NEW JERSEY

Camden—justice of the peace.
Elizabeth—2 aldermen, justice of peace.
North Haledon—tax collector.
Rockaway—mayor.

NEW YORK

A member of legislature (from Schenectady).
Auburn—1 alderman.
Schenectady—full ticket (including mayor.)

OHIO

A member Constitutional Convention.
Carleton—2 councilmen.
Cincinnati—member of school board.
Columbus—4 aldermen.
Hamilton—vice-mayor, 2 councilmen-at-large, 3 councilmen, 2 assessors.
Akron—alderman, 2 assessors.
Barberton—full ticket.
Canton—majority of council (mayoralty election contested).
Conneaut—councilman, 2 councilmen-at-large.
Cuyahoga Falls—full ticket.
Dayton—4 councilmen.
East Liverpool—councilman, justice of the peace, member board of education.
Findlay—alderman
Fostoria—mayor, 1 councilman.
Lima—full ticket.
Lorain—full ticket.
Mansfield—full ticket.
Martins Ferry—full ticket.
Mt. Vernon—full ticket.
Rittman—marshal, 4 councilmen.
St. Mary's—full ticket.
Salem—full ticket.
Toledo—alderman (Mayor Whitlock is *not* a Socialist).
Waverly—constable, justice of the peace
Wadsworth—2 councilmen.

PENNSYLVANIA

Franklin—1 county commissioner.
New Castle—mayor, 11 councilmen.
Oil City—5 councilmen.
Pottstown—5 councilmen, school director, 2 assessors, 3 constables.
Reading—5 aldermen.
Wheaton—full ticket.

RHODE ISLAND

A member of legislature (from Providence).

UTAH

Eureka—full ticket.
Manti—full ticket.
Murray—full ticket.
Stockton—constable.
Tintic—constable.

WASHINGTON

Everett—3 councilmen.

EFFECTIVE MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT

A STUDY OF THE CITY OF FRANKFORT-ON-THE-MAIN

BY WILLIAM DUDLEY FOULKE[1]

IT is to Prussia and not to the German Empire that the cities of Prussia, among which Frankfort is an illustrious example of good government, owe their origin, and it is the kingdom of Prussia which superintends their administration. The charter of Frankfort was granted in the year 1867, over three years before the empire was established, and it has remained practically unchanged until the present time.

Prussia is divided into twelve provinces. Each province is sub-divided into administrative districts. The provinces are governed by provincial assemblies and provincial councils, and the districts by district committees or Regierungs. The Regierung which supervises the city of Frankfort is composed of a president appointed by the king, an expert member selected after examination, and four lay members chosen by the provincial assembly.

The state supervision over the city is quite different from that exercised by our own state legislatures, which alter charters and make new regulations for the municipalities at almost every session. In Prussia charters are rarely altered, but each particular act of the city government comes under the supervision of a state administrative board, composed in part of experts and invested with the special function of superintending the more important acts of the municipality. The Prussian plan is immensely superior to ours. This special body is far more competent to correct the unwise action of the city than an *indoctum parliamentum* composed largely of representatives from other parts of the State who have little knowledge of the city's needs or even of what its inhabitants desire.

The charter of Frankfort provides that the city is to be represented through (1) a municipal board and (2) a representative assembly. Ordinances not inconsistent with existing laws are made by the concurring resolution of these two bodies, with the approval of the Regierung or district committee. The jurisdiction of the municipality in all local affairs, with comparatively few exceptions, is universal. It may pass what ordinances it will and conduct what business it will, subject only to the Regierung and the general laws of the kingdom. What a different development of municipal life would we have had in America had such extended jurisdiction been conferred by our own city charters!

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[1] William Dudley Foulke was elected president of the National Municipal League at the Buffalo meeting in 1910. This article is the substance of his annual address at the Richmond meeting, November 13, 1911. Mr. Foulke was formerly federal civil service commissioner under President Roosevelt. He has also been a member of the Council of the National Civil Service Reform League for many years.

All inhabitants, except soldiers, belong to the city community, are entitled to the benefit of its public establishments and bound to share its burdens. Every Prussian, twenty-four years of age, capable of managing his own affairs may vote, if he has been for one year an inhabitant, has received no support from public charity, has paid his municipal taxes and either possesses a dwelling in the city or a permanent industry, with at least three assistants, or has an income of $300 a year. The wife's income or possession is attributed to the husband, that of the child to the father.

Every citizen is obliged to accept an unpaid place in the administration or in the representative assembly, if chosen thereto, and must perform its duties for three years. He can refuse only on account of sickness, business requiring frequent absence, age of sixty years, holding another public office, medical practice, or special circumstances which in the opinion of the representative assembly furnish a valid excuse. Whoever else neglects to fill such place can be deprived of his citizenship and compelled to pay from one-eighth to one-fourth more direct taxes.

Our own municipalities have never sufficiently availed themselves of the city's right to call upon its citizens for unpaid service. An immense mine of civic patriotism is still largely unexplored, but whether this can best be exploited by penal statutes is questionable. Voluntary service is better than that which is compelled and public opinion will do more than law.

The representative assembly consists of sixty-four members chosen by districts. One-half of these must be owners of houses. The Regierung can declare an election void for serious irregularities.

The municipal board consists of an Oberburgermeister, a Bürgermeister (who acts as his representative in his absence and performs any delegated duties), and also twelve paid and thirteen unpaid members. The Oberburgermeister is appointed by the king for twelve years from three candidates presented by the representative assembly. The king has invariably appointed the man standing first upon the list presented. The Oberburgermeister is generally chosen from experts who have filled similar offices in smaller cities. He is usually a man of university education, wide attainments and high character. Dr. Adickes, the present Oberburgermeister, has served twenty years, and has still four years of his present term unexpired. The Bürgermeister and the paid councillors are elected by the representative assembly for twelve years, and the unpaid councillors for six years, one-half being chosen every three years. Upon retirement these officials as well as all city employees, receive a pension of one-quarter of their salaries after six years' service, one-half after twelve years, and which then rises up to twenty-four years, when it amounts to two-thirds of the salary.

The members of the representative assembly are not bound by the instructions of their constituents. Their resolutions need the approval of the municipal board in all matters confided to the execution of that board. If this approval is refused and no agreement can be reached, a decision is sought from the Regierung.

The assembly may meet as business demands. It actually convenes once every week. The municipal board is invited to all its meetings and can be represented by deputies. Special places are assigned for its members; they may be interrogated and must be heard whenever they desire. It thus occupies somewhat the same position as a cabinet in a parliament.

The representative assembly, besides enacting the city ordinances, passes upon the budget and imposes the municipal taxes. The system of taxation is extremely complicated and elaborate.

It is impossible to go into details. The amount of tax imposed upon any particular thing seems very reasonable, but altogether they form an aggregate which is considerable. Personal property, is not directly taxed as with us, but an income tax imposed by the state and supplemented by an addition in the city reaches the interest and dividends from capital. The taxes upon buildings and upon land as well as upon trades have been renounced by the state and such taxes are imposed by the city alone. These taxes are graduated. In the tax upon trades, returns amounting to less than $750 a year are free.

The taxes upon improved real estate are not laid, as with us, upon their estimated value but upon the gross rental actually received during the preceding year, the theory being that these taxes are to be paid out of the rent. If the building could only be used part of the year, taxes are paid for that proportionate part only. This total rent received, however, is not the measure if it differs greatly from all the rental values in the neighborhood or if it includes the use of personal property or depends upon the result of an industrial undertaking or other uncertain event, or where the owner occupies the property himself or allows another to do so without compensation. In that event, the rental values of the neighborhood determine. If the property for other reasons is unrented or unused, no tax is paid. The house tax is 4 per cent of the gross income, but this rate is increased by a graduated scale for every dwelling whose rental value exceeds $125.

On unimproved real estate the tax is laid upon the value of the land. A new valuation is made every three years. Two members of the municipal board and seven of the representative assembly form the tax-committee to levy this tax.

Churches are not supported as with us by voluntary contributions, but their members pay a church tax which is divided proportionately among the Jewish, Catholic and Protestant communions. Any citizen may withdraw from a church and avoid the tax, but the Oberburgermeister told us that few do so "because the women want the men to belong."

But the most remarkable feature of the taxing system of Frankfort is the tax which is laid, when property is transferred, on the unearned increments of land values. There is no city tax upon transfers by inheritance, though there is one imposed by the general government. It is curious to note the progress of this tax upon the unearned increment in German communities. It was first established in 1898 in the German settlement of Kiao Chau in China where the government evidently intended to avail itself of the opportunity to receive part of the benefit of an increase in values from the growth of a new community. In Germany proper this "increment tax" also began with the municipalities. Two cities in Saxony adopted it in 1902. The first town to apply the name was Helbersdorf in 1903. One year afterwards Frankfort established this tax and 642 other communities have followed, among them the most important cities of Germany, and in February of the present year the imperial government passed a general increment tax law in the Reichstag by a vote of 199 against 93. The municipal increment tax is allowed to continue for five years. After that time it must cease, and the city is to receive a small proportion of the general tax.

The Frankfort increment tax or transfer tax as it is called, passed in 1904, provides that every change of ownership not depending upon inheritance is subject to a city tax of 2 per cent of its value and if since the last preceding transfer less than five years has elapsed in the case of improved or ten years in the case of unimproved property and there has been an increase of value of 30 per cent of the former price, a supplement is imposed as follows: Five per cent for an increase up to 35 per cent, 6 per cent for an increase up to 40 per cent, and so on, 1 per cent being added for every 5 per cent increase until the total tax reaches 25 per cent. Expenses for permanent improvements are deducted also loss of interest and cost of maintenance for unimproved property, less the income therefrom. If property is sold by a mortgagee, however, the tax is collectable only out of the excess. In case of exchange of property it is levied only once and upon that piece whose value is increased the most.

To return to the general scheme of government. The municipal board must execute the laws and ordinances. It also prepares the resolutions and much of the other business of the representative assembly. It administers or supervises the municipal establishments and property, the income and expenses, the accounts and the treasury. It appoints and superintends the city officials whose appointments, except for temporary service, are for life. It distributes taxes among those liable for them and secures payment. At the present time the municipal board meets twice every week. The Oberbürgermeister, or his representative, presides and oversees the whole administration. Where it would cause injury to wait for a resolution of the board, he may arrange the matter alone, and report it for action at the next meeting. State supervision, as we have seen, is exercised by the Regierung, or district committee.

The impression conveyed by an examination of this charter indicates that in Prussian cities the system of checks and balances is carried quite as far as in American cities. The municipal board may suspend an act of the assembly which it considers beyond its jurisdiction or against law or justice, or injurious to the city or the state. The Oberburgermeister may suspend a similar act of the board and the final decision in each case goes to the Regierung. This body may forbid the execution of an act which it considers illegal or injurious, or if the assembly refuses to bring into the budget things legally incumbent upon the city, may compel their insertion. It is easy to see that after all the personal equation counts for a great deal. In the hands of an unscrupulous Regierung, ducks and drakes might be made of the work of the municipality. The sovereign may dissolve the assembly and through his minister of the interior appoint for six months a temporary commission. In the hands of an unscrupulous despot the sustem might thus be put at the mercy of the central government. In point of fact this is not done. The wonderfully successful German cities under this form of administration is rather a tribute to the growth of character and of capacity for municipal government which this form of organization allows and encourages than to any other peculiar excellence in the form of organization itself.

The Frankfort police is administered in the main by the Prussian government. It is committed to a police president appointed by the king, who is authorized to make the city authorities his organs and the minister of the interior is authorized to transfer single branches of the force to the city government under supervision of the state. The whole force is paid by the state, the city contributing one-third. Police officers are pensioned upon retirement, and it is reckoned that the pensions paid amount to 17 per cent of all the salaries. In Frankfort certain branches of the force have been turned over to the city under this law to be used for special city purposes for instance, the building police, whose duty it is to see that the building laws and ordinances of the city are complied with.

The industrial enterprises undertaken by the city of Frankfort are more extensive than those which are pursued by city governments in our own country. A summary of these is presented by Dr. Busch for a series of pamphlets on the industrial undertakings of the different cities of Germany. It was prepared in 1909 and is, therefore, two years old. I have drawn liberally from this source, and the statements made must be referred mainly to that date. A capital of some $29,000,000 is employed in such enterprises without estimating property in land. Some of these undertakings have produced a large profit, others require an outlay, but from a rather incomplete table in which these are contrasted it would appear that there is a considerable net gain to the city. The city employs some 4000 permanent, and an average of 1000 temporary workmen. The wages paid are $1,375,000, or an average of $275 for each person, besides $35,000 for clothing and $62,500 for payment during sickness, leave of absence, over time, etc. Married workmen get an additional rent allowance, according to the number of their children. City property is rented to city employees on very reasonable rates and the workmen besides their pension after retirement have certain advantages in reduced fares on city railroads, certain exemptions from taxation, etc., so that with a lower cost of living than in America this $275 means a good deal more than it would mean with us.

Many of the city enterprises are directly in aid of the administration of the government. For instance, there is a central office for all clerical work; with book bindery and lithographic apparatus, a special municipal telephone with five hundred connections, a general supply establishment, which acts as a purveyor for the single branches of the service. Purchases are made in larger quantities with greater competition and at better prices and the materials are adequately tested. Useless and superfluous articles are brought here and either sold or applied elsewhere. In winter and at other times when there is a lack of employment it offers work, especially in cutting and reshaping the stones which have been removed from streets that have been re-paved so as to make them available elsewhere, or in breaking them up for macadamizing. There is also a city lumber yard connected with the fire department which employs the firemen stationed there in carpenter and joiner work and cares among other things for the fencing of city lots. The street cleaning department falls under this head, and the daily sprinklers, including the new ones recently put upon the city railroad and operated by electricity. The removal of rubbish from the houses is effected by special rubbish carts, with special receptacles to be set out in the evening and shaken into the carts. A fee is levied for this service according to the size of the dwellings. Those of an annual rental value of less than $75 are free. At the outlet of the sewers is a cleansing establishment with purifying basins over which the sewage passes and when thus filtered it flows into the Main. Rates are imposed according to the size of the buildings drained. The mud and slime are withdrawn from the basins by machinery and scattered over large fields where they dry and form a compact mass. Part of it has heretofore been sold for agriculture. Connected with the street paving department but with a special budget are the city stables which comprise the whole driving equipment of the municipality, except that of the fire department.

The city of Frankfort has charge of most of the enterprises which with us go under the name of public utilities. It operates the water works, providing from many sources a supply of spring water for drinking and of river water for other purposes. Its cost was $7,250,000. The rate charged is 4 per cent of the rental values of the dwellings. Those of less than $62.50 yearly rent are free. Business rooms pay 1 per cent of their rental value. In factories and for industrial and agricultural purposes the charge is by meter. The system of charging upon the rental value of the property is, however, considered extravagant and the average use of water is much greater in Frankfort than any other cities. The yearly profits are $175,000, besides interest on the property.

By the city electrical works electricity is sold by meter at a price for lighting purposes of 12½ cents per kilowatt hour up to 3000, then 10 cents and for motors 3¾ cents per kilowatt hour, but in the evening hours in winter 6¼ cents. The profit amounts to about $400,000 per year.

The city of Frankfort has not been able to operate municipal gas works owing to the fact that there were two concessions to private companies for one hundred years each, and the term will not expire until 1959. This is a source of great chagrin to the city government and the people generally though the competition between the two companies has kept gas at a fairly reasonable price and the city electrical works has aided in this competition. The monopoly period will expire before the concession and there is talk of the city establishing competing works at that time. In some of the suburbs municipal works are already established.

The city owns and controls the harbor upon the river Main with warehouse establishments and railways connecting with the main lines.

In 1898 the city purchased the horse railways and shortly afterwards transformed them into an electrical system, which is now operated at a profit of about $175,000. The appointments are admirable. The price is 2½ cents for four kilometers or 2⅖ miles, and 1¼ cents for every two kilometers in addition. The prices for the suburban lines are kept low (although there is a deficit here made up out of the profits of the interior city lines) in order to encourage intercourse and provide cheap surburban homes, for workmen. Weekly cards are issued to laborers for the morning and evening hours of the six working days of the week at the rate of three kilometers and return for 15 cents and five kilometers (three miles) and return for 20 cents per week and for every further kilometer 2½ cents. For a three mile ride this is one and two-third cents a trip. As great care is taken in the materials the cost of repairs is low. Many subordinate industries are included in the street railway system. It constructs the over head traction work, puts the cars together in its workshop and adapts horse cars to the electric system. Great care is exercised in the establishment of the plan of service adapted to the different hours and seasons and to the handling of special crowds on festivities, etc. So as to guard against the effects of the prevalent influenza upon its personnel in winter, a reserve corps is created composed of the cutters of uniforms and tailors, shop repair men and the like. This tailoring was adopted to supply such a reserve and to keep the men employed when not needed.

Frankfort has many promenades, avenues and gardens and seven parks, besides city school gardens for botanical instruction and city cemeteries. To supply these with flowers and trees a city garden was established with green houses and nurseries. This garden also supplies decorations for festivities and furnishes private individuals with plants and flowers from those not needed for city purposes. It has had a peculiarly stimulating influence on private gardening. Flowers and rare plants are seen everywhere. Frankfort has become a garden city. The net expense to the administration is about $55,000 a year.

There are city forests of 8552 acres of which 535 acres are annually forested. The total net income is $47,000 or about $5.50 per acre.

A city vineyard of some thirty acres was acquired a hundred years ago. The wine from this is developed and cooled in the city rathskeller and sold to innkeepers and individuals.

The city owns and operates bathing establishments with swimming schools, hot air and steam and shower baths. This enterprise involves a deficit of about $22,500.

It was found that there were great abuses in funerals and burials when conducted by private individuals, as indeed there is everywhere, enormous sums being spent by those who can ill afford it for a little useless pageantry. To end these abuses as well as to classify the occupation of cemeteries, the city took charge of all interments. The cost of burial is graded according to the income of the deceased. The city also conducts the funeral arrangements, if desired, though this may still be done, if preferred, by private undertakers, the city being merely a competitor and furnishing simple but respectable coffins and other appointments at moderate figures.

Another industry subject to great abuse in private hands is of the pawn shop and Frankfort, therefore, has a municipal pawn shop administered by a commission and controlled by a special director. A number of reliable pledge collectors are specially licensed. The net cost to the city last year was some $5000.

Another industry designed to improve the welfare of the poor is the city savings bank with twelve branches and thirty-six places with merchants where deposits are received. In 1908 and 1909 it had 29,000 depositors whose deposits amounted to $4,750,000, upon which the city paid interest at 3½ per cent. Connected with this is a so-called old age savings bank affording insurance against old age and disability. The city treasury invests the deposits in the Frankfort Bank and in loans upon real estate security. A reserve fund is created out of the surplus up to a certain point, after which they are applied to ordinary city uses.

There is also a city intelligence office for the employment of laborers and domestic servants, conducted by a commission of employers and employees on a basis of equality under the presidency of a member of the municipal board. It is divided into male and female departments and sub-divided into intelligence bureaus for certain trades. The business manager is required to give applicants notice of strikes and lock-outs. The annual cost of the bureau is $6500.

The city of Frankfort also owns and operates a cattle yard for the reception, inspection, importation and exportation of live stock, and a city slaughter house in which some 36,000 cattle and 230,000 smaller animals are slaughtered every year by city employees. There is an inspection of the animals before killing and of the meat afterwards, and a special examination made for trichina by forty-eight special officers.

There are other enterprises for the promotion of public culture in which the municipality participates. For instance, the city owns a splendid theatre and an opera house, in which standard plays and musical compositions of the highest order are admirably produced. The buildings alone are worth $3,250,000. The city does not manage these undertakings, but gives a subsidy, amounting to $75,000, including pensions and these institutions also receive the support of many private endowments, so that municipalization is not considered desirable. The city also contributes to the support of a library, a picture gallery, a museum and zoological gardens.

The city has constructed a magnificent hall for expositions, concerts and festivals upon a tract some forty-seven acres in extent. The surface of the building alone covers 6000 square meters. The city already owns part of the land and leases the rest of it from an orphan asylum. A building association was organized to construct the building in which the city took about one-third interest.

But the most remarkable instance of the intrusion of the city government into the domain of what we would consider exclusively private enterprise is found in its transactions concerning real estate. The principles upon which it acts are avowedly paternal and even socialistic. Its policy is constantly to increase the city holdings and to use the city funds and credit to advance the welfare of the community in respect to dwellings so as to prevent the workingmen and the poor from herding in unwholesome tenements. The city owns some 3250 acres within its own limits or about 21 per cent of its total area without including the city forest. There was a special department established in 1897 for the purpose first of building the harbor, embankments and railroad in the eastern part of the town and then for the development of building plans for outlying portions of the city.

To this bureau was transferred at its foundation city real estate worth $6,500,000, besides a capital of $1,500,000 for loans. This bureau has constantly grown. In 1909 it controlled property worth $26,500,000. One of the original purposes in buying and selling lands was to prevent undue speculation by private persons and the holding back of property for excessive prices, but when it was considered that these sales meant an unjustifiable preference of single individuals, it was decided that the city should give systematic support to the building industry by advancing a share in the cost of building with a grant of the land in lease and the acceptance of guarantees for interest. Thus large tracts of land have been opened for building purposes. Private land owners were induced to co-operate with these measures and to grant their own property upon similar leases and an ordinance was passed in 1902 reserving 30 per cent of the tracts laid out for public streets and squares. This was found insufficient and in 1907 the percentage was raised under certain conditions to 35 and 40 per cent. Long prior to this time the city had already begun to erect dwellings for its own officials and workmen. More recently teachers began to be included and finally the city determined to grant lands on lease open to all persons who desired to erect buildings upon a secure basis. The city took part of the stock and redeemable obligations of the International Building Company in opening a new division called Hellerhof with the privilege of purchasing the remainder of the stock so as finally to come into possession of the whole. For the handling of these building undertakings there is a special fund established by the city. The land is usually leased for sixty-one years at a yearly ground rent of 2½ per cent of its value. The building plans require the approval of the municipal board. After the expiration of the lease both land and buildings revert to the city. The city furnishes up to 75 per cent of the building money and 90 per cent in the case of officials and teachers in the erection of a dwelling for one family only. Four per cent interest is required and for officials 3½ per cent. Four to five per cent of the loan is to be repaid each year. Dr. Adickes, the present Oberburgermeister of Frankfort, told us that he was also in favor of the city constructing at its own cost dwellings for workmen in general, not merely city employees, but that he had hitherto found the objection was too strong in a city government in which property interests were so largely represented, since the owners of private buildings did not wish the competition of the city and the reduction of rental values which might follow from this policy.

What then are the excellencies of the German system of municipal government as illustrated by the city of Frankfort? They are admirably set forth in Mr. Deming's work on *The Government of American Cities,* as peculiarities of the European system when contrasted with our own.

The city has a local government clothed with power to satisfy all its local needs and conduct its local affairs according to a policy locally determined through the election of a local legislature in a campaign turning upon local political issues. It has no elected city officials except members of the city legislature. It has an administrative service the members of which obtain and hold their position irrespective of their opinions on either local or national political issues. It exercises its local powers without arbitrary interference from outside authority and the superior authority of the central government where there is occasion for its assertion is exercised through administrative methods

But even this excellence in local form of government would be quite insufficient with an inexperienced community to accomplish the results which Frankfort has accomplished. For that purpose an electorate capable of exercising self-government and filled with a spirit of local as well as national patriotism is essential. The Frankfort form of government facilitates this and has developed it, but a long time was necessary for this purpose.

Frankfort was for a considerable period a free city and accustomed to self-government, but it has not greatly differed from other cities of Prussia in this municipal experience. A little over one hundred years ago that kingdom was in the lowest stage of political degradation. Its armies had been overthrown by Napoleon. Its territories had been divided. Its king was practically a fugitive, its institutions were disorganized and demoralized. Yet, in that dark hour there were three great men in charge; Schornhurst, who developed its admirable military system; Hardenburgh, who conducted its foreign policy and Von Stein, one of the greatest statesmen in history, who created anew its domestic institutions. The serfs were freed, public and university education stimulated and developed and local self-governing communities were created and grew up even under the military despotism. During the middle ages the cities of Germany had been centers of civilization. Von Stein believed that they might be so again and he conferred upon them the right to elect legislative bodies to manage their local affairs. The Bürgermeister was appointed for a long time; he was to be a man skilled in city government and the citizens who administered it were to have at least a small property interest as a guarantee for their qualifications and a proof of their stake in the public welfare. The forms of city government which he established were similar to that which exists in Frankfort today. They needed little change, for each community might develop according to its own needs. Germans have thus been well trained for municipal duty; trained by thorough education, by that sentiment of subordination, that instinct toward solidarity which military discipline instills. The burden of the army has been a heavy one upon Germany, but it has had a great compensation in that discipline, and at this moment the German people, with some qualities which are not altogether amiable or attractive, possess, in my opinion, a larger share of civic virtue than any other people in Europe, except perhaps the Swiss. They are an honest and law abiding people. No money is spent in corrupting the electorate. Not only the law, but public sentiment renders this impossible. Peculation is almost unknown and the funds of the public are administered with fidelity and skill. It is only under such conditions that a city dare undertake the manifold industrial enterprises which the city of Frankfort is successfully pursuing.

Our own municipal education has not yet gone so far. We have still in our electorate a vast body of men with very dim notions of their municipal duties and with very little ability to perform them. A man high in Prussian service said to me "You will finally be able to do what we are doing, but it will still take you a long time. It comes by degrees." He spoke the truth. Municipal aptitudes are not made in a day. They grow with the development of municipal life. Our city governments have been the darkest stains upon our institutions. Things are now beginning to improve. There has been a great moral awakening among our people; the necessity of better government is perceived by all. The desire is there and we are gradually learning how we may obtain it. Not the least among the duties of the Municipal League is the duty of developing this sentiment of local patriotism. It might be unwise for us at this moment to attempt at once all the varied activities which are so successfully undertaken in Frankfort. We may have to content ourselves at first with smaller things. But it is high time to begin. We have immense aptitudes in other directions and we must make them available for the regeneration of our city communities. It is better to risk too much than to be dismayed from making any effort to extend the sphere of city activities.

Two thousand years ago Euripides wrote some lines that have been good enough to last:

Thou hast heard men scorn thy city, call her wild
Of counsel, mad; thou hast seen the fire of morn
Flash from her eyes in answer to their scorn!
Come toil on toil, 'tis this that makes her grand,
Peril on peril! Common states that stand
In caution, twilight cities, dimly wise—
Ye know them, for no light is in their eyes!
Go forth, my son, and help!

ANTI-TOXIN FOR MUNICIPAL WASTE AND CORRUPTION

BY RICHARD HENRY DANA[1]

Cambridge

I HAVE tried to find a title for this address which would convey an idea I have in mind. I wish to show what I believe to be a fact—that there are certain internal diseases connected with our municipal government in America which act on the very circulation of our ordinary municipal life very much as hostile germs work in the human blood. It makes little difference whether one is tall or short, has red, blond, or black hair, eyes blue, gray, or brown, the germs act pretty much the same, and produce very much the same results. It would make little difference even if one had five heads like the giants of the fairy tales, or a hundred arms like the mythical Briareus, provided it was human blood that flowed in the inner veins.

Anti-toxin seems to be a treatment of the disease which introduces into the blood something to strengthen the good and wholesome germs, so that they can better resist the insidious attacks of the hostile microbes. In municipalities, I believe that it makes no difference whether we have one mayor or five mayors, city councils of one chamber or two chambers; whether the council members are elected at large or by districts, or whether the executive functions are given to numerous committees of a council which also has legislative powers; so long as municipal patronage, municipal contracts, municipal franchises, enforcement of laws and regulations, and the purchase of municipal supplies be left in politics will they be equally corrupting and enfeebling to the administration of city business. The way to overcome the insidious attacks of these baneful forces seems to be by some anti-toxin which, whatever the outward form of the municipal government may be, will strengthen ordinary municipal administration to resist these disease microbes.

I will not spend any time in proving that contracts, patronage, and the like, furnish the chief sources of power through which the political machines control municipal nominations and elections. For convenience I shall call these things municipal riches, and when used in politics as they now are, political plunder.

Now for the remedy. The serum of anti-toxin has a close connection with the activities of the microbes of disease. Though the analogy is not perfect, the reform we suggest is to place this very food of the microbes of disease, this political plunder, where it will be out of politics, and cease to be plunder. In general, the remedy is to put these municipal riches in the hands of experts, and to give these experts sufficient power, independence, and length of tenure to keep them free from the exigencies of passing politics.

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[1] Richard Henry Dana is chairman of the Council of the Civil Service Reform League and a member of the joint committee of that organization and the National Municipal League on the selection and retention of experts in city service. Mr. Dana's paper summarizes the results of the investigation carried on by that committee, although the views he expresses and the conclusions he draws are personal rather than official.

Before going further I should like to point out that there is a clear distinction between the policy-determining functions which I shall call political, and those of detailed expert administration. This distinction has been recognized both in theory and in practice in England, France, and Germany, and there the municipal governments are both efficient and honest; while in America the distinction has not been observed,—the same person performing political and expert duties—and in America the municipal government is neither efficient nor honest, as a rule. Those who determine the policies, the politicians in the best sense of the word, should be subject to frequent change in order to represent the popular will; while the expert in charge of detailed administration should have a life-career of public employment. It is therefore inconsistent that the same person should be both a politician and a supposed expert, or should have both a long and a short tenure. We should have, as they have in England, Germany, and France, different persons to represent these different functions.

Two more words about the expert before I advance further. There are, I believe, many positions like that of superintendent of streets, which it is popularly believed any one can fill just as well as an expert. I believe also, that it is because we have men without scientific training in such positions, that, for example, we almost never see true macadam put down on our streets. It takes some scientific knowledge to appreciate why five inches of broken stone will not do just as well as the eight inches required by MacAdam's rule; why these eight inches ought to be made of pieces of about the same size instead of wholly different sizes; and why proper drainage is so important for a lasting job.

The joint committee of the National Municipal and Civil Service Reform Leagues has employed an investigator who has studied the departments of several or our large cities and found not a few experts who have held their positions from fifteen to twenty years; but these are minor positions giving no independent power or, as a rule, no secure tenure. Their recommendations in favor of better work we know to be overridden by the political chiefs. Then too, it has been found, as by the Boston Finance Commission, that the best of these experts have had to yield to, keep silent about, or even further corrupt practices, though gaining no benefit thereby except to hold their places. Let me say, however, in fairness to such experts and also to make my point more clear, that it is their superior political chiefs who have the power to direct them secretly yet effectively in every detail and to whom the experts are supposed to be loyal, who conceive and profit by the corruption.

Why is it, one may ask, that we think it safe to put the municipal riches into the hands of experts? First, the training of experts tends to exact painstaking and clear thinking, and such habits of mind tend to honesty. Secondly, if we gave the experts sufficient power and a tenure for good behavior and efficiency, subject to supervision by those who are not their political friends, wrong-doing would be likely to be discovered and their life-career and professional reputation would then be ruined; while the powers and independence of tenure we propose would free them from the entanglements of political intrigue. Let me put the matter in another way: we see and deplore the fact that municipal riches are used as corrupting factors in politics; and yet we leave these riches in the autocratic power of those bodies and persons who from the nature of their offices are, and indeed, should be, in politics. Why not put these riches, then, in the power of those who from the nature of their offices are not, if properly protected, and should not be, in politics?

Now, assuming that we have arranged to have the experts separate persons, how can we choose experts who will be honest and efficient and give them the power and tenure necessary for our purposes, and yet keep the balance between the public will and bureaucratic red tape? To select these experts, they should as a rule have entered the lower expert services of the municipalities through civil service examinations, and gradually have reached the higher positions by promotion. Sometimes, however, no one in the subordinate services will be found of large enough calibre to fill the higher positions, and original appointments from outside must be made. In such cases how can these higher positions be filled? They can be filled through the civil service methods which have frequently been successfully used in national, state, and municipal service, namely, by thorough inquiry into what has been the education, training, achievements, and executive ability of the various candidates, and a thesis prepared by each, which inquiry is conducted not by the commissioners or their regular office-force alone, but by independent experts of the kind required for the position to be filled. These examining experts are selected by the civil service commission, which aids them in their investigations and keeps the records, etc. In this way engineers, architects, superintendents of streets, city physicians, bacteriologists, foresters, assistant city solicitors, city and state librarians, and other officials requiring high scientific training and administrative and organizing capacity have been most successfully selected entirely independent of politics, and the very best men obtainable have been secured.

How are the experts selected in England, France, and Germany? In France and Germany nobody can receive appointment in the expert services who has not secured a high degree from a public scientific polytechnic school or college, and these degrees are obtained by open competitions. In France some few places are filled by direct competition of the kind just explained. In England the positions are filled through committees of municipal councils. These committees, however, by long custom employ the very methods which, as I have just described, have been employed by our civil service commissions. There is no civil-service law in English cities; but the situation in an English municipality cannot be adequately comprehended without reference to the national so-called "Local Government Board." This board is composed of experts selected by civil service competition, acting under a parliamentary cabinet minister. The approval of this expert, civil-service appointed board is required for the appointment of medical officers, sanitary inspectors, public vaccinators, and officers of the poor-law guardians. This national board also audits all municipal accounts, and without its sanction no expenditures can be paid out of the loans or bond issues; while their sanitary and medical experts aid cities in epidemics, and their engineers advise in laying out new sewer or water-supply systems. To come back to the selection of experts, we suggest, in short, enforcing by law the regulated investigation which the appointing officer should make, but in our country so seldom does make.

Then as to the independence of tenure, these positions should be held during capacity and good behavior, and there should be no removal without publicity, such publicity as can be secured by a public hearing. How is it in England, France, and Germany? In a general way, the traditions and customs are such that no removals are made except for strong reasons; but in addition in England there is an association of the higher municipal officials in Great Britain of very great influence and power, and if any removals are made for improper reasons the whole matter would be made public by this well-known and trusted association. Then, too, the methods of selecting experts to fill vacancies are such that, as under our civil service laws, they prevent creating vacancies merely to fill them with party or personal favorites.

Abroad there is promotion, not only in the same service in the same municipality, but from the service of one city to that of a larger; so that these experts' careers are not limited to the size of the city in which they enter the service, but only by the highest positions in the larger municipalities of the country. Already in the United States we see the beginnings of this promotion from one state or city to another. Suppose, then, we select good and efficient experts, give them a secure tenure, and put the political riches in their control, how are we to secure the will of the people? Ultimately the public will should prevail; but we must be sure that it is in reality the public will, and not merely the whim, or prejudice, or corrupt motive of some political chief. The way the whole matter works in England, France, and Germany is something like this: Expert heads of departments acting in a body lay out proposed budgets and suggestions for new policies. These then are accepted or modified as the policy-determining body wishes; and, finally, it is the experts that carry out the work, and enforce the laws and regulations imposed upon them. In addition, however, to appropriations and legislative orders there are often executive policies which the political head of a department believes the public wishes, and these should be carried out. How can this be done without giving the political chief so much control over the expert that he can compel the expert to turn over as political plunder the riches we have put in his hands? I reply, by publicity. When the political chief differs from the expert chief, the expert should be given the right to make his views public; and before he is overridden the political chief should be compelled to put himself on record, taking the responsibility openly and facing public opinion. Possibly in matters of contracts and purchase of supplies the political chiefs should be restrained from directing; and perhaps we should go further and require the whole policy-determining body to act before over-ruling the expert, rather than allow the political chief alone so to do.

I have spoken of a board of experts. In Europe and in England the expert heads in a municipality form a board, and sometimes there is a chief expert over the whole board; and to this board can be referred many expert questions which it would be safer not to leave to an individual, as, for example, the question whether open competition for public work needs to be suspended in a particular case.

On the whole, this board of experts is like some great imaginary machine which can not only build sewers, let us say, in the best and most economical manner, but keeps itself informed on all modern improvements in sewer building and can suggest public policies as to sewerage disposal. At the lever, however, should stand the policy-determining representatives of the people.

To England, Germany, and France it seems incomprehensible that we in America should even attempt to get municipal government without the splendid expert boards they have; and, far from interfering with wise political policies, it has been found that their system is of the greatest help to able public executives. In practice the experts do not obstruct, but rather promote, all wise policies. If, however (though it practically never happens in real municipal administration) the expert refuses to obey, or obeys in a half-hearted way, the publicly determined policies of the political chief or body, that should be ample cause for removal.

It should also be noted that this system of expert administration, directed and supervised by political chiefs, works equally well under different forms of municipal government and with various kinds of electorates, either with strict property qualifications or with nearly complete manhood suffrage. In Germany a member of the "Deputation," or joint committee of the magistrate and the elective city council, supervises each administrative department. In Paris one of the "*adjoints*" elected by the people is over each department. In England a committee of the city council supervises each department with the experts under them.

If we adopted such a plan we should secure for the permanent heads of departments experienced men of high character and training and tenure based on merit and fitness, persons who believe in the merit system and wish to see its principle enforced even in the excepted places, and municipal contracts honestly and efficiently made and strictly carried out; clean streets and better security for the public health; a day's work for a day's pay; engineers and other scientific men encouraged to accept municipal work as a career; more independent supervision and investigation because the experts are not personal appointees of the politicians; better methods of accounting; continuity of public policies carried out on broad plans for the future; more definite fixing of responsibility between the political executives and the expert administrators; and finally, the removal of all political plunder from politics.

How can we apply such a system to our American cities? It could be most easily applied in the commission form of city government, which provides that those in charge of each department shall be immediately under the authority of the supervisors. It could also be applied where the heads of departments are under the control of political boards. In cities, and especially in large cities, where a mayor is the chief executive he needs some cabinet officers to aid him in determining executive policies and in supervising the departments. In a small city not carrying on much public business, the mayor might be the sole political head of all the departments. In larger cities we should doubtless need a thorough revision of the charter with reference to what positions should be purely political, and what should be expert; but in general it is believed that we should need not more than from four to eight political chiefs, helping to determine the policies of and supervising an equal number of large departments, each department having its expert chief with his expert assistants under him. In all kinds of municipal government we should need charter provisions giving to the experts the proper powers and independence of tenure, such as I have explained above, in order to accomplish the good we desire. In regard to law enforcement, I may say that twenty cities in Massachusetts have this year put their chiefs of police under civil service rules with the unanimous approval of the state association of chiefs of police.

Much has been said about "heads" of departments. This has caused confusion, because one person has in mind a political head, and another has in mind an expert head. There should be both a political head and an expert head, each a different person and each with clearly defined powers.

Pope says:

> For forms of government let fools contest,
> Whate'er is best administered is best.

I have my doubts about this as I believe the public are as much entitled to the best tool as is a mechanic; but whatever truth this couplet contains, let me point out that the remedy here presented is one wholly connected with administration, and is aimed to get the best.

CITY GOVERNMENT BY COMMISSION: A REPORT[1]

THE committee finds itself in agreement on the following interpretations of features of commission government.

MAJOR FEATURES

1. *Commission government is a relative success* as compared with the older forms. The people who live under it are generally more content. They feel that they are more effective politically and that commission government is an asset to their town. Substantial financial improvements have generally resulted, demonstrating a striking increase in efficiency and a higher standard of municipal accomplishment, and this may fairly be credited to the better working of the new plan.

2. This relative success of commission government *results primarily because it is more democratic* (i.e., sensitive to public opinion), than the old form. Among the features which undoubtedly are responsible for this increased sensitiveness are

a. Its "unification of powers" as contrasted with the old undesirable "separation of powers." The commission having all the power, has no one to blame for failure to please the public, cannot evade full responsibility, and having ample power to remedy each abuse, can be held responsible for any failure to do so. This stripping away of the old time protective confusion-of-responsibility exposes the commission to the direct fire of public opinion and makes its members personally targets for public criticism. The unification of powers unifies the whole governmental system, gives the government the single controlling brain which is necessary to a successful organism, prevents lost motion, "pulling and hauling," deadlocks, and ill feeling.

b. The short ballot. This makes each elective official conspicuous on election day and after; makes intelligent voting so easy that practically every citizen can vote intelligently without any more conscious effort than he expended on his business of citizenship under the old plan. The short ballot simplifies the whole work of citizenship so much that the citizens can handle their political affairs without employing a political machine as an intermediary political instrument. The short ballot in small cities makes the politician and his machine superfluous, and thereby substitutes for the old oligarchy of political experts a democracy in which the entire populace participate.

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[1] A special committee of the National Municipal League, consisting of William Bennett Munro, of Columbia, Prof. Charles A. Beard, of Columbia, Dr. Ernest S. Bradford of Washington, Clinton Rogers Woodruff, Philadelphia, Editor The NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, and Richard S. Childs, secretary of The Short Ballot Organization, was appointed before the Richmond meeting to plan an analysis of commission government for discussion. The report of this committee as presented at the meeting is embodied in this article.

Being acutely sensitive and therefore anxious to please, commission government has been giving the people better government because the people are and always have been ready to applaud honest and progressive government. A contributing factor undoubtedly is the fact that the radical change has usually awakened a fresh civic interest among the citizens, which runs along of its own momentum for a considerable time and does much to tone up every branch of administration.

Commission government could reasonably be expected to succeed with these features (unification of powers and the short ballot) alone, and no new city charter should ever be classified as true commission government which lacks these essentials.

OTHER FEATURES

3. *Non-partisan ballot.* The non-partisan method of election is highly desirable, but not absolutely indispensable, as the short ballot by making the party label a superfluous convenience, thereby destroys much of the label's influence anyway.

4. *The initiative and referendum-by-protest* have proved useful as provisions for allaying the time honored popular fear of entrusting large powers to single bodies. The sensitiveness of commission government reduces the necessity for these devices and instances of their use in commission governed cities are very uncommon. It should not be forgotten that Galveston and Houston, the first two cities to have the plan, made their success without these features. They have not proved dangerous or susceptible to misuse.

5. *The recall* is a desirable, but not indispensable extension and modification of the right to elect. We have no evidence that it has been misused. In several cases it seems to have been employed to good advantage. Under the sensitive commission plan it is less needed than with the old plan, and is more practical.

6. *The abolition of ward lines* is desirable in small cities, and has been generally welcomed as putting an end to numerous petty abuses. It tends to prevent petty log-rolling and emphasizes the unity of the city. Its importance, however, has been generally over-estimated, for there are many cities (Galveston, before the flood, being one), where ward lines have been abolished without developing any appreciable or permanent reform.

7. It is unsound and therefore unwise to make the commission *auditor* of its own accounts. This does not necessarily involve the independent election of a city auditor in all cities. Some authority, such as the gover-

nor, could appoint a State officer with power to investigate the accounts of all cities and to make his reports public. This is in line with the National Municipal League's familiar demand for uniform municipal accounting and reporting.

8. It is unsound to give the commission control over the *civil service commission* as in Des Moines, unless the civil service commission be given a protected and long tenure of office and rotation of appointment. The civil service commission might better be appointed by some remote authority, such as the governor.

9. *Mayor's veto. It is doubtful whether the mayor should have a veto* over his confrères, or in fact any added powers, lest he overshadow the other commissioners and attract the limelight at their expense, leaving them in obscurity where the people cannot intelligently and justly criticise and control them.

APPLICABILITY TO DIFFERENT SIZED CITIES

10. Commission government is in general to be recommended *for cities of 100,000 population* and under, and *possibly* also for cities of much larger size in preference to any other plan now in operation in any American city.

The maximum size which may wisely adopt the commission plan without any modification cannot as yet be established, as too few large cities have tried it.

The foregoing represents matters on which the whole committee substantially agrees.

The following are questions on which the committee did not agree and as practically all our work was done by correspondence it was impossible for the members to reason with each other and reach a conclusion. These matters are therefore submitted without conclusions in the form of subjects for further debate with a brief for each side.

11. *Should the election-at-large feature be retained in the case of very large cities?*

Yes. The abolition of the ward system in Boston brought excellent results in the composition of the council and is credited with having accomplished more in the way of breaking down the influence of the machine than any other feature of the new charter.

No. As the size of an electorate increases, the expense and difficulty of conducting campaigns for the office increases also, until they reach a scale where individual candidatures are balked and the support of an experienced political machine, as contrasted with that of a newly improvised machine, becomes so important to the success of a candidate as to give to existing machines a safe option in the choice of hopeful candidates. Officials when elected will thus be indebted to the machine, and the machines share with the people in the control over the government which ought to belong to the people alone. If machines are to be abolished as influences in municipal politics, their monopoly must be broken and free competition established, and this can only be done by creating conditions under which electioneering machinery, adequate for the task, can be improvised in case the established organizations are insufficiently deferential to public opinion. For large cities, therefore, the commission plan should be changed to something more like the English or German plan of government by a ward-elected council of popular representatives, or possibly a plan of proportional representation could be worked that would be better yet. The requirement of residence in the district should be abolished.

12. *Should the size of the commission be radically enlarged in the case of very large cities?*

Yes. Five men are too few to represent the varied elements of a great population and will be too far from the people to be able to analyze public opinion by direct contact. The commission should therefore be enlarged but in a manner which will retain the short ballot. For moderate sized cities, the choice of only a part of the commission at a time would help, but in the larger cities a sub-division of the people by ward divisions or proportional representation seems advisable.

That a large body is not fitted for executive work is admitted (though such government succeeds in British cities) but the executive function can be delegated to a compact appointive committee, or, better, to an appointive chief executive as in German cities and in the so-called "Lockport (N. Y.) Plan."

No. The existence of the initiative, referendum and recall would be sufficient to keep any city government in touch with popular opinion.

The business of city government is almost wholly executive. The commission should therefore be an executive body first and last.

The theory that for very large cities the commission should be enlarged, is erroneous, since based on the belief that the greater the number of men, the better the representation, which does not follow. The enlargement of the commmission is incompatible with the short ballot, unnecessary beyond seven or nine members and preferably five or less, and tends toward the same confusion and irresponsibility so prevalent under the present council system.

13. *Should the individual commissioners each be executive heads of departments?*

Yes. This feature is incidental to the "unification of powers" and a method of combining legislative and administrative control in the same body. Under many charters the commission is the legislative body, and *individually* the members of the commission, being each the head of a department, constitute the administrative force. The commission is not a body of experts but a board of general managers whose oversight and general direction is required but who are to hire the experts and technical men for the various positions needed. It is not essential that the commission should be a true reflection of the population; but it is important that they (the commission) act for the entire population and represent it in the sense of looking after the welfare of the whole city. An advisory board consisting of laboring men, reformers, business men, some women, and all the other elements of the population might be a desirable help to a city governing body in formulating its course of action; but the real work must be done by a few men and these should be the commission.

There is no more danger of intrusting the individual commissioner with the carrying-out of the will of his confrères on the commission than of trusting the president of a corporation to carry out the will of the board of directors of which he is a voting member.

No. The feature of the usual plan which makes the elected officers administrative heads is unsound (except in the smallest cities where the communal work is of so simple a nature that it may safely be entrusted to any man of general common sense). Where the city work is considerable and technical, the requirements that elective officers shall be competent to perform executive duties is a denial of accurate representation to many large classes of the community, for the requirements practically attempt to limit the people to the selection of members of the employer class. Experts and executives cannot be effectively selected by popular vote, and their choice is not a natural popular function. The interest of the people is in representation. The commission should be a true reflection of the population. In a city with a large laboring class, the commission should contain a due proportion of laboring men, and in the natural desire for such representation *the people will elect such men anyway* regardless of their unfitness by experience for large administrative work.[2]

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[2] The discussion of this report was somewhat curtailed at the meeting. Numerous questions were hurled at the chairman, but the fire was cut short before any real heat had developed. The tone of the discussion indicated a very general agreement with the conclusions of the committee.

At the round table luncheon, which followed, there was substantial disagreement by Admiral Chadwick of Newport, who challenged the commission plan for its failure to give adequate representation and upheld in preference the Newport plan which provides for an elective council of 195 members, chosen thirteen from each ward, who meet monthly, debate city affairs and instruct the other elective officers, who consist of a mayor and five aldermen constituting the administrative side of the city.

In general the trend of the discussion was to the effect that the commission was by no means the ultimate form of American municipal government, but a transitional form which was destined to lead on to the wholesale cleaning up of myriad ancient abuses.

It is obvious that the National Municipal League can do splendid service in watching commission government, giving warning promptly of any weaknesses that may

LIST OF CITIES ADOPTING A COMMISSION FORM OF GOVERNMENT IN 1911

New England Division

MAINE

Gardiner		5,311

MASSACHUSETTS

Lawrence		
Lowell	Charter	106,294

NEW JERSEY

Hawthorne	State Law	3,400
Irvington	State Law	11,877
Margate	State Law	129
Ocean City	State Law	1,950
Passaic	State Law	54,773
Ridgewood	State Law	5,416
Trenton	State Law	96,815
Wallington	State Law	3,448

South Atlantic Division

WEST VIRGINIA

Parkersburg	Charter	17,842

NORTH CAROLINA

Greensboro	Charter	15,895
Wilmington	Charter	25,748

GEORGIA

Cartersville	State Law	4,067
Marietta		

FLORIDA

Green Cove Springs
Passe a Grille

develop so that they can be corrected before the plan in general gets discredit, and making plain by analysis the real essential merits of the plan to the end that they may not be overlooked and dropped out as the plan spreads.

The commission plan spread its wings over a 10 per cent increase of population as a result of various elections and referenda on November 7, the total population of the cities under the plan now being 3,894,173.

The following list was prepared by the Editor of the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW in coöperation with the officers of the Short Ballot Organization.

ILLINOIS

Braceville	State Law adopted by city	
Carbondale	State Law adopted by city	5,600
Clinton	State Law adopted by city	5,165
Decatur	State Law adopted by city	31,140
Dixon	State Law adopted by city	7,216
Elgin	State Law adopted by city	25,976
Forest Park		
Hamilton	State Law adopted by city	1,627
Hillsboro	State Law adopted by city	3,424
Jacksonville	State Law adopted by city	15,326
Kewanee	State Law adopted by city	9,307
Moline	State Law adopted by city	24,199
Ottawa	State Law adopted by city	9,535
Pekin	State Law adopted by city	9,897
Rochelle	State Law adopted by city	2,732
Rock Island	State Law adopted by city	24,335
Springfield	State Law adopted by city	51,617
Spring Valley	State Law adopted by city	7,035
Stirling	State Law adopted by city	7,467
Waukegan	State Law adopted by city	16,069

MICHIGAN

East Jordan	Home Rule Law	2,516
Fremont	Home Rule Law	
Pontiac	Home Rule Law	14,532
Wyandotte	Home Rule Law	8,287

WISCONSIN

Oshkosh

West North Central Division

MINNESOTA

Faribault	Home Rule Charter under State Law	9,001
St. Clond		

SOUTH DAKOTA

Lead		8,392

KANSAS

Chanute
Manhattan
Pratt

NEBRASKA

Beatrice		
Omaha	State Law	

West South Central Division

KENTUCKY

Lexington		35,099
Newport		

TENNESSEE

Chattanooga		44,604
Knoxville	Special Charter	36,346
St. Elmo	Charter	2,426

ALABAMA

Birmingham	State Law	132,685
Cordova	State Law	1,747
Gulfport		
Hartselle	State Law	1,374
Huntsville	State Law	7,611
Mobile	State Law	51,521
Montgomery	State Law	38,136
Talladega	State Law	5,854
Tuscaloosa	State Law	8,407

MISSISSIPPI

Clarksdale		4,079

OKLAHOMA

El Reno	Home Rule Charter	7,872
Guthrie	Home Rule Charter	11,654
Holdenville	Home Rule Charter	
Lawton	Home Rule Charter	7,788
Oklahoma City	Home Rule Charter	64,205
Stillwater	Home Rule Charter	3,444

TEXAS

Port Arthur		

Mountain Division

MONTANA

Missoula	State Law	12,869

WYOMING

Sheridan	State Law	7,522

UTAH

Logan		
Murray	State Law	4,057
Ogden	State Law	25,580
Provo	State Law	8,925
Salt Lake City	State Law	92,777

Pacific Division

WASHINGTON

Centralia		
Chehalis		4,507
Hoquiam		8,171
North Yakima		14,082
Spokane	Home Rule Charter	104.402
Walla Walla	Home Rule Charter	19,364

CALIFORNIA

Monterey	Home Rule Charter	4,923
Sacramento	Home Rule Charter	
San Luis Obispo	Home Rule Charter	5,157
Santa Cruz	Home Rule Charter	11,146
Stockton	Home Rule Charter	
Vallejo	Home Rule Charter	11,340

ECONOMY AND EFFICIENCY IN HEALTH ADMINISTRATION WORK

BY SELSKAR M. GUNN[1]

Assistant Professor of Sanitary Biology and Public Health, Massachusetts Institute of Technology

ANY estimate of what constitutes economy and efficiency in health administration work cannot be regarded as satisfactory until the true functions of a health department have been properly defined. Such an understanding has not yet been attained, although the progress of sanitation in the last few years, resulting largely from the wonderful discoveries of bacteriology and the remarkable achievements of epidemiology, is gradually bringing a truer conception of the nature of those conditions which have not imaginary, but real health significance. A study of the annual reports of various health departments of this country reveals great variation, both in the objects pursued and in the detailed methods of attack.

Health authorities are being relieved gradually of the burdens of garbage and refuse collection and disposal, plumbing inspection, poor relief, and general hospital maintenance—matters of slight if any health significance. Consequently they are becoming more and more able to devote their whole time and energy to questions of real sanitary import, to the solving of problems which will actually result in the decrease of preventable sickness and in conserving human life and happiness. Again, it is generally conceded that at the present time health departments are usually inadequately financed. New funds are not granted for the furtherance of the work of the department, or if so, to only a limited extent. It is doubtful however, if the funds now actually at the disposal of the health authorities are being spent with *real* economy.

One of the chief causes of inefficiency and lack of true economy is to be found in the lack of proper knowledge as to the comparative importance of the various branches of work which may be pursued. A health commissioner is confronted with the question of what he ought to do to improve the sanitary status of his community. He has limited funds, and consequently cannot do all that he might wish. "Shall I make a special effort to curb tuberculosis, or devote my resources to improving the milk supply?" "Should meat and food inspection be developed before factory inspection?" Questions similar to these are constantly confronting every modern sanitarian in charge of a city health department, and the decisions that have to be made are not always easy or evident. However, it is only by developing such a sense of proportion that efficient administration can be obtained.

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[1] Selskar M. Gunn is Assistant Professor of Sanitary Biology and Public Health in the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. Formerly he was bacterologist to the Massachusetts State Board of Health and Health Officer at Orange, N. J.

It is natural that health department organization should be far from perfect in most places. Their growth has often been unplanned, and the lack of knowledge in the past has largely prevented an orderly and scientific development. What might have been considered good organization twenty years ago would not be able to stand criticism in the light of modern discovery. We find at the present time that certain lines of activity receive far more attention than their actual importance would warrant. Excessive emphasis on meat and food inspection, and an accompanying neglect of milk supply supervision is a good example of this. The particular hobby of a health commissioner may lead to an unbalanced state of affairs, and is to be particularly guarded against. Again, the special prominence of some problem may lead the health officer to undertake work out of all proportion to the actual needs, and to the detriment of some other part of the service.

An interesting example of the great variation in the activity of health authorities with regard to work of the same character has recently come to my attention and will bear repetition here. The number of samples of milk and cream examined chemically in twenty-seven large cities of the United States varied from 4 to 344 per 10,000 of population, and the number of samples of milk tested bacteriologically in twenty-four of these cities varied from 0.6 to 288 per 10,000 population (these figures are for the years 1909 and 1910). While it is improbable that a standard number of analyses based on the population could be set, it is not unreasonable to maintain that these figures show that the health departments of some cities are devoting too much attention to this work and are allowing other lines of work to be neglected, while other cities are neglecting this work although they may be overemphasizing in some other direction. It certainly seems that those cities which are making so many chemical analyses are really going to excess in this particular, and that no added benefit in the form of a purer milk is being obtained for the city on account of this *unusual* activity. In one of the large cities which analyzes a great number of samples, the dairy farm inspection work of the department is practically *nil*, the inspectors having to spend so large a part of their time in the laboratory testing samples. The law of diminishing returns is a real factor in inspection work.

If we could really get at the relative importance of all the activities of a health department, we would be in a position to apportion the necessary funds in a scientific manner, giving due weight to each line of work.

The death rate of a city cannot be used as a measure of the efficiency of the health authorities. The fallacy of this method of determining the health status of a community has been conclusively demonstrated. Most careful studies of vital statistics are necessary and the good derived from some lines of endeavor cannot be demonstrated by any statistical methods yet devised. The remarkable statements of some health officers concerning the health of their city would be amusing if they were not so serious as indicating ignorance on the part of these most important city officials.

Apparent economy may be attained by an untrained man, but in most cases true economy, combined with efficiency, cannot be had unless the health administration is in the hands of an individual thoroughly trained in the sanitary arts. It cannot be expected that any one who has not received special training, or who has had merely the few hours of hygiene allotted to the subject in a medical school curriculum, is a proper person to be put in charge of the public health activities of a community. The first essential for any city which is honestly seeking to maintain a health department of real value is to secure the services of a trained sanitarian. There is no alternative in this matter. For small communities which are unable to pay for the services of such an individual, it has been suggested that neighboring communities may combine, and so secure the services of an efficient man who shall be the executive for all.

A comparison of the requirements for employment in public health service in this country with those of England, Germany, and other European countries, reveals to us a quite unsatisfactory condition. In the foreign countries special evidence of fitness is essential. New Jersey, in the past few years, has required all persons who desire to enter public health service anywhere in the State to pass an examination, and to obtain a license. By this means many who are unfitted by lack of knowledge and training have been excluded from the service. Other States might well copy this progressive step. Too long have we played with the public health. It is a disgrace that severe epidemics are necessary to bring home the lessons of inefficient service. Nor does the necessity for trained officials end with the appointment of a health officer or commissioner. His subordinates should likewise be subjected to suitable examination. The growth of the civil service is a step in the right direction.

Among the common methods used by some health officers to combat insanitary evils is what I shall term, for want of a better word, the "outburst" method. I refer to transitory outbursts of activity directed at some particular business or condition which is supposed to have a bearing on the public health. Sometimes the bakers or ice cream dealers are subjected to a sudden and severe examination as to the sanitary conditions of their places of business, or maybe the fly nuisance is selected for a special campaign of theoretical extermination. While this method of occasional activity is sometimes the only available one for an under-manned department, and occasional inspection and sampling are better than none at all, yet I venture to remark that eminently better results could be obtained by regular and reasonable inspection.

It should always be borne in mind that the strength of inspection lies in frequent *reinspection*. Furthermore, the persons concerned prefer a regular inspection and certification. What health officers need is the coöperation of the public, and particularly of those engaged in industries or affairs which have a bearing on the public health. The educational value of frequent and friendly inspection needs no special argument to any who have been working on the problem of dairy farm inspection.

Real efficiency naturally incorporates in it economy. As has been pointed out by the Bureau of Municipal Research of New York City the question "whether administration has been economical or wasteful can be determined only by contrasting cost with service results." The investigators of this bureau have emphasized the proper recording of service results, and especially at times when the budget is being considered.

While it is true that it is difficult, and at times impossible, for a health department to demonstrate by means of figures the actual beneficial results of various of its activities on account of the complexity and diversity of conditions which may produce a particular disease, yet in certain lines it is eminently practical. We can see it in this city of Richmond in the reduction of typhoid fever, and in the improvement of the milk supply. The results of efficient service are demonstrated in the annual reports of the chief health officer, Dr. E. C. Levy, whose brilliant work has attracted the attention of all progressive sanitarians in this country. Methods similar to those used here should be employed elsewhere. They are essential for scientific budget making and should be a great aid in asking the city fathers for more money. Even at the best it takes time to get the needed appropriation, but this time may be considerably shortened by using modern methods to demonstrate the needs.

Accounting methods of health departments as evidenced by the financial statements contained in their annual reports are in need of some standardization if proper use is to be made of them. It is almost impossible for cities to compare their expenses with other similar communities. The Massachusetts Association of Boards of Health some months ago appointed a committee to draw up an outline of a form for use by the local city boards in their annual reports. The form of the financial statement is being carefully considered by this committee as an important part of its work.

In a number of cities bureaus of municipal research are in operation, and are doing constructive work in reorganizing the activities and accounting methods of the health departments. This should have a very beneficial effect if carried on with the proper coöperative spirit, and should assist materially in the preparation of a sensible and clear budget that will interest the citizens and win their support.

In conclusion, it seems to me that in order that we may have health departments both economical and efficient, we must free them from politics with its accompanying uncertainties and strife, and place them in the hands of trained sanitarians who shall understand the relative importance of the different lines of endeavor and who will then be able to disburse an adequate appropriation in such manner that the community will receive the maximum protection at the lowest possible cost.

PRIVATE HOUSES AND PUBLIC HEALTH

BY JOHN IHLDER[1]

New York.

LAST spring we held in New York the first National Conference on Housing in America. At that conference the health commissioner of the city where life is said to be worth living, seized every opportunity to declare that the first thing we need is education. It is perhaps safe to assume that he meant the education of the people, not the education of health officers, for the university of his State has recently conferred upon him an honorary degree because of his efficiency. And there is no question that the honor was earned, for he has made a remarkably good record during his years in office.

Yet there are many important questions regarding the health of the people under his charge which no health officer in America can answer. This is not because the answers are unfindable, it is because our education in matters of public health has scarcely passed beyond the primary stage. Pure water and clean milk represent to most of us the utmost attainable municipal heaven. Further than that we do not aspire to go, contenting ourselves with building hospitals, sanatoria, insane asylums, etc., to take care of the human wastage which "always has been and always will be."

This fall I tried to learn how far the education demanded by Dr. Kiefer had been pursued by the men who should know in a dozen of our large cities. I asked if they could give me accurate data showing the effect upon health of privies and out-door waterclosets, windowless rooms, overcrowded rooms, and fermenting manure and garbage piles. From Cleveland alone did I get any encouragement. There they promised to undertake this study and send me the results. I believe that the study is now being made. From all the other cities word came that the information was not obtainable or that the task was too great to be undertaken.

Do not misunderstand me. These answers did not mean that we have no evidence that privies and out-door waterclosets, windowless rooms, overcrowded rooms and decaying refuse are inimical to health. Such evidence exists in abundance. But we have never made a thorough and scientific study of these evils as they affect a large population, and compared the health of that population with the health of another of the same economic status, similar racially and socially, but less exposed to such unwholesome conditions.

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[1] John Ihlder is the field secretary of the National Housing Commission and was formerly the secretary of the Civic Committee of the Grand Rapids Board of Trade. He is also secretary of the League's committee of Civic Secretaries. Mr. Ihlder has traveled widely in the interest of his work and his paper represents not only his close office study of the question, but observation on the field.

To some of you such a study may seem purely academic. If we know, as we do, that a manure pile over one week or ten days old swarms with flies which have bred in its fetid warmth; if we know, as we do, that those flies have an undiscriminating palate which permits them to eat and drink the food we have set for ourselves in pantry and dining room immediately after they have fed in the privy; if we know, as we do, that the fly carries on his feet and in his stomach the stuff he found in the privy and wipes his feet on our bread and our butter and washes them in our milk; if we know, as we do, that the germs of disease, such as typhoid, are held by the human excreta and carried with it by the flies to our tables where it is transformed from fly food into human poison, surely, you may say, this is all that it is necessary we should know. But try to enact or enforce a law abolishing privies in a crowded section of the city and you will find, as did the Civic League in St. Louis and the State Board of Tenement House Supervision in New Jersey, that the privy infested parts of St. Louis have less typhoid than those where waterclosets are the rule, that Jersey City apparently thrives on flies and privies while Newark pines for them. And with our lack of education we are unable to give the answer. We know there is an answer, but we can't find it when needed.

A few weeks ago I made a housing investigation of Paterson, N. J. Paterson has, as such things go in America, an efficient city government. There are no glaring, obvious weaknesses which he who runs may note. But the chairman of the committee which called me in told me that in looking up the answers to some of my questions he had found that the birth of one of his children had never been registered. Charles B. Ball, chief sanitary inspector of Chicago, not long ago addressed a meeting in a Wisconsin town, a town within the registration area, the statistics of which are considered fairly reliable. He had secured from the health officer a statement of the number of deaths for the year, 289. At the end of his address a gray haired gentleman tapped him on the shoulder and said, "I am the principal undertaken here. I buried 397 last year and there are two other undertakers who make a living somehow in this town."

These anecdotes may contain the answers which the Civic League and the board of tenement house supervision were seeking.

But it is not alone in this phase of their education that our public health officials are lacking. Our office is now receiving the answers to some questions on health and housing which we addressed to the heads of State and city health departments. Among them are these: First, from the secretary of a State Board: "Our present State constitution, having been adopted in 1818, does not mention public health nor deal with housing in any way. We have a state tenement house law . . . . amended at the session of the legislature just adjourned. Copies have not yet been printed for distribution."

At the time that letter was written I had had copies of the amended law on my desk for three weeks. This law applies to all cities and boroughs. Its predecessor, passed in 1905, applied to all cities of 20,000 population or over. The health officer of a city in that state, which in 1900 had over 50,000 inhabitants, wrote on the same day as the State official's letter quoted above, "We cannot advise you to any extent on this important question as very few of our ordinances or regulations, in regard to health, are printed . . . . In answer to some of your questions we will say that there is a provision in our State constitution dealing with housing and the public health. Also, a State health law which applies to our city. There is no State law which affects housing conditions in our city. . . . Our city has a tenement house law. Sorry that we cannot supply you with more information. Respectfully, ———."

When I was a newspaper reporter I learned that it is never safe to trust implicitly to what one man may tell you, no matter how well intentioned he may be.

All this illustrates what Dr. Kiefer said, the need of education, but not only on the part of the public. We need education as to the facts and we need education as to the significance of those facts. No men realize this more keenly than some of the health officers themselves. Mr. Ball, in an address before the Chicago Association of Commerce last August, said "We know something about our mortality. But we do not have opportunity to classify and study and arrange those facts as we ought to have them arranged . . . . Our birth rate is unknown. What would you think of a business which has no record of its receipts—of its income? We can not control the infant mortality in Chicago till we know how many babies are born and where they are born. That data is absolutely lacking. You are more interested in the question of the economic loss. We know nothing of that to speak of. There are cities in the world that have a fair knowledge of the economic loss to industry which comes from disease and death."

In those last three sentences Mr. Ball struck a responsive chord. His story was not a mere pitiful tale of the slum to wring sentimental hearts; it is a record of business. Bad housing, disease, preventable death all figure on the debit side of the ledger. A life is worth so many dollars. The members of the National Municipal League who attended the Pittsburgh conference, at which the Pittsburgh Survey was first exhibited, remember how forcefully this fact struck the business men of the steel city, how the president of their chamber of commerce figured that typhoid had caused them an economic loss in workers killed equal to a $3,000,000 steel mill paying 10 per cent each year. Mr. Ball figured that lowering the death rate of Chicago 4.9 per thousand will mean the saving of 12,250 lives a year. This, at $5,000, "half the official valuation of $10,000 placed on a life by the Illinois legislature," would mean an annual saving of $61,250,000, an amount well worth any city's consideration.

But if we would learn something of the value of the various factors which must be dealt with in effecting this saving, we have to turn to Europe, where education along these lines is somewhat farther advanced than it is with us. This is not so much of a discredit to us as the bald statement seems to imply, for the European nations owe their progress to war and the preparation for war. Naturally then Germany preceded England which did not begin to act with vigor until the call for volunteers for South Africa showed that of 11,000 applicants in Manchester only 3,000 were physically fit to enter the army.[1] Such showings raised a storm in parliament where it was admitted that Great Britain's military and industrial future were seriously threatened by this deterioration in its men. The result was an investigation by a royal commission which reported that, next to improper food, the principal cause of the deterioration was the crowding of the population in unsanitary houses.

There have been a number of local investigations which point the same way. The medical officer of health for Finsbury, London, found in 1906 that in his district (population, 1901, 101,463) the death rate per thousand was over six times as great in one room tenements as in those of four rooms or more.

	per 1,000
In one-roomed tenements	39.0
In two-roomed tenements	22.5
In three-roomed tenements	14.8
In four-roomed tenements (or more)	6.4

In Glasgow (population, 1901, 761,712) an investigation in 1901 had led to a similar conclusion:

SIZE OF HOMES	PER CENT OF POPULATION	PER CENT OF DEATHS
One room	13.7	22.0
Two rooms	45.8	47.8
Three rooms	19.9	13.4
Four rooms and upward	17.9	9.2

Report of Medical Officer of Health.

This was buttressed by an investigation made by the Glasgow school board in 1905–06, which showed that children whose homes contained one or two rooms are smaller and lighter in weight than those brought up in larger homes.

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[1] Report of Committee on Physical Deterioration. 1904. P. 14, Minutes of Evidence.

72,857 Children aged from 5 to 18 Examined.

	WEIGHT	HEIGHT
	Pounds	*Inches*
Boys from one-roomed homes	52.6	46.6
Boys from two-roomed homes	56.1	48.1
Boys from three-roomed homes	60.0	50.0
Boys from four-roomed homes (or more)	64.3	51.3
Girls from one-roomed homes	51.5	46.3
Girls from two-roomed homes	54.8	47.8
Girls from three-roomed homes	59.4	49.6
Girls from four-roomed homes (or more)	65.5	51.6

Similar results have followed such investigations in Germany. Horsfall quotes the results obtained by Kugler in Baden, which indicated that room crowding increases tuberculosis. In America one of the most valuable investigations was that undertaken by the Merchants Association of New York, which showed the close relation between the decomposing sewage along the water front and the typhoid cases that formed an edge, fly distance wide, along the line of the docks.

Of course these tables are not proof that bad housing alone produces the evils shown. There are other causes, such as mal-nutrition. But the tables are indicative of the important part which must be credited to bad housing.

Though the education of our people and of some of our health officers has not progressed far enough for us to understand the significance of such facts, or even to know that such facts exist, some of our industrial leaders have begun to understand. There are in the United States today over twenty industrial villages or suburbs created by men or corporations who employ great numbers of workers. These villages and suburbs, some of which deserve the term "model," were created for business, not sentimental reasons. The men responsible for them believed that wholesome living conditions meant more efficient workmen. Unable to provide wholesome living conditions in the cities, they moved outside. Here again we must go abroad for the facts which tend to support this belief, though such facts should be obtainable in America. Four miles from the workingmen's district of Birmingham is the model industrial town of Bournville. Out of every 1000 children born in the first, 331 babies die. Out of every 1000 born in Bournville, only 65 die.

Have we not passed the time, however, when a few leaders shall monopolize the benefits of the knowledge that wholesome housing is a business asset? We can not scatter all our factories broadcast over the land, each in its own little village. The vast majority will remain in the cities. But this does not mean that we must continue to suffer the annual loss of thousands of preventable deaths, the greater loss of millions of lives only partly efficient. Once a considerable part of our people become educated these old, paralyzing evils will be wiped out. Though we may not be able to prove that privies and dark, overcrowded rooms cause the death of so many persons per thousand each year we have testimony strong enough to arouse our attention. Miss Harriet Fulmer, head of the Visiting Nurse Association in Chicago, told the National Conference of Charities and Correction, at its meeting in this city three years ago that bad housing is the chief cause of poverty.

Said Miss Fulmer:

> Not long ago someone gave out some very interesting data as to the causes of poverty and asserted that drunkenness led the list. But they should have gone one step farther back and asked what led to the drunkenness. *Bad Housing!* Two-thirds of the delinquent children come from homes where dirty and ill ventilated rooms predominate. Two-thirds of the physically ill children from the same. One-third of the mentally deficient from the same. One-third of the shiftless mothers from the same. Two-thirds of the deserting fathers from the same. To bad living quarters can easily and without exaggeration be attributed two-thirds of the necessity for much that we call 'problems' in our reform work. Just as long as we have bad living quarters to offer the less fortunate, so long must we have expensive reform measures. Why pour water into a sieve by being content to let greedy or indifferent landlords, ignorant and careless municipal authorities, politics and what-not, interfere with the humane work of tenement house reform?

Such testimony is being noticed. Five months ago Mr. Hiram J. Messenger, actuary of the Travellers Insurance Company, placed before the Association of Life Insurance Presidents the result of a study he had just completed of sanitary conditions in thirty-two American cities. This report seemed so important to the presidents of the great insurance companies that they had a large edition printed for distribution. Their motive is frankly stated in the report:

> The success or failure of a life insurance company, assuming honest and intelligent management, depends upon three things—the expense rate, interest rate and mortality rate; and in a thoroughly established, well conducted company these factors are of approximately equal importance. As a rule companies have paid great attention to the expense rate and the interest rate in all its bearings upon the business, but in the matter of mortality rate, in all the wonderful development of life insurance in this country the past sixty years, the efforts to secure a favorable mortality have been practically confined to the benefits resulting from a careful initial selection of risks, while the question of what can be done to lower the mortality rate and to keep down the claims by efforts to postpone or to prevent the death of the insured while the policy is in force has hardly been given serious consideration.
>
> Here is a field of work which it is possible to make of really great importance. Life insurance executives have the reputation of being shrewd,

practical, level-headed business men who know their own interests. Here is an opportunity for them to do a great work for humanity and at the same time directly benefit their own companies and policy-holders. Here is a wholly neglected field of activity having a direct bearing upon the financial success of the business which they are conducting.

Certainly the time must be near at hand when a health official seeking information about the standing of his profession in the eyes of American citizens will *not* find, as Dr. Palmer of Springfield, Ill., did last winter, a city of 10,000 population which pays its health officer $25 a year; another of 20,000 which expects its police matron to look after its health affairs, when not otherwise engaged; another whose health officer received his job because he had lost a leg and had no means of livelihood.

A life is coming to be regarded as a commerical asset. It must be made to yield as much as possible on the investment. And sad though it may make some of us to admit it, therein lies our hope of making our cities what the boosting clubs are so fond of calling them, "cities of homes." It is not due to fine spun theory, but to claims of efficiency and economy that the commission form of government and the short ballot are finding favor in our eyes. It is not due to pitiful tales of suffering and wrong that our cities are beginning to consider the possibility of wiping out the slum. It is due to the growing realization that the slum means an economic loss, that its presence indicates ignorance on the part of the citizens and inefficiency on the part of the government.

THE DEFEAT OF THE TAMMANY-GAYNOR CHARTER

BY LAURENCE ARNOLD TANZER[1]

THE career of the "Tammany-Gaynor" charter for New York City, which failed of passage at the last session of the New York legislature, was a curious episode in the history of charter making. Its defeat was a signal triumph of civic coöperation.

For some years the need of revising the charter of the city of New York has been under discussion. There has been no official compilation of the laws relating to New York City since 1882, when the legislature adopted the consolidation act, codifying the laws relating to the city of New York as then constituted. In 1897 the city of Brooklyn and other communities were consolidated with the city of New York to form the Greater New York. The government of the consolidated city under a borough system was provided for in the Greater New York charter passed in that year. That statute was a bulky instrument which established the outlines of the new government and prescribed numberless details, but did not contain all the law relating to the city. On the contrary, it left in force and extended to the consolidated city all provisions of the consolidation act and of all other statutes relating to the former city not inconsistent with the provisions of the new charter, and did not repeal any provisions of law applying to the other merged localities which were not inconsistent with the new charter.

In 1901 the Greater New York charter was extensively revised, but no substantial change was made in the general condition of the laws affecting the city. To ascertain the law on any question relating to the government of the city has thus become a task attended with great difficulty and uncertainty. This condition, as well as the obscurity of much of the legislation itself, has given rise to a well founded demand for a comprehensive revision of the charter. Experience has also indicated the desirability of some changes in the distribution of administrative functions; such changes, however, could be made and have in many instances been made by specific amendments to the existing charter.

A commission was appointed in 1907 to inquire into the government of the city and its charter and to suggest changes. That commission reported to the legislature January 1, 1908, recommending important changes in the government of the city and advocating the enactment of a home rule charter which should provide only the outlines of the city government, and of an administrative code to provide for administrative details and to be subject to amendment and amplification by the local legislature. Under an act passed by the legislature of 1908, the so-called Ivins commission, consisting of the former commission with additional members, was appointed to prepare such a charter and administrative code. Drafts were prepared and submitted to the legislature of 1909, too late in the session and too incomplete in form, however, to permit of adequate consideration in that year. Some hearings were had which developed wide difference of opinion on some of the principal recommendations, and a special joint committee of both houses of the legislature was appointed to examine and consider the proposed charter and administrative code.

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The legislative special committee (known as the Hammond committee) reported to the legislature of 1910 and expressed its approval of some of the recommendations of the Ivins commission, but disagreed with others. The legislature enlarged the membership of the special committee and instructed it to draft a charter along the lines suggested by it. The committee proceeded to carry out these instructions with such energy as to present a proposed new charter at the very same legislative session,—in the form at first of twenty-six bills, each containing a separate chapter, afterwards consolidated into one bill known as the Hammond charter. The result of this hasty work was so defective that the legislature declined to pass it, but despite the protest of the Citizens Union that the work of drafting a charter should be done by experts allowed enough time to do it properly, extended the life of the committee and directed it to report further at the session of 1911.

No substantial progress was made in the work of charter revision until after the State election in November, 1910, when a democratic governor and a democratic legislature were elected. Mayor Gaynor, who had been the only candidate on the Tammany ticket elected the preceding year and who found himself in a minority in the board of estimate and apportionment, the city's chief governing body, apparently thought that he saw an avenue of escape from this, to him, uncomfortable situation. He put his corporation counsel to work upon a charter to his liking. When his intention of presenting it was announced, the legislative special committee, with the aid of experienced legislative draftsmen, hastily prepared a revised edition of the Hammond charter. Both bills were introduced in the legislature March 31, 1911. Tammany Hall, which dominated the legislature, let its intention be known of passing the mayor's charter, generally spoken of as the Gaynor charter, and the Hammond charter was speedily lost to sight.

The Gaynor charter was ostensibly based on the Hammond and Ivins charters, but this was only a pretence. It did not contain the important features of either. It left substantially unchanged in constitution the notoriously inefficient board of aldermen for which the Ivins commission had recommended the substitution of a small unpaid council—a recommendation with which the Hammond committee however did not agree. It continued the condition under which jurisdiction over the streets is divided between the borough presidents, the street cleaning commissioner and the commissioner of water supply, gas and electricity, which the Ivins commission attempted to solve by concentrating this jurisdiction in a single department of street control, and which the Hammond committee attempted to solve by a simplification and coördination of powers. It continued the division of control over city hospitals among the departments of charities, health and the trustees of Bellevue and Allied Hospitals, to cure which the Hammond committee had recommended a single department of hospitals under a board of trustees and a commissioner appointed by them. It did not attempt to solve the problem of police organization, as to which the Ivins commission had recommended that a superintendent of police appointed from the uniformed force should be the executive head of the uniformed force, a recommendation with which the Hammond committee had disagreed. It made no constructive improvements in the government of the city sufficient to justify a new charter; it did not embody a revision of the laws relating to the city. Its whole purpose was to satisfy a mayor greedy for power and impatient of the limitations which the voters had placed upon him. The bill proposed to reverse the result of the 1909 municipal election by transferring to the mayor's appointee, the chamberlain, some of the most important bureaus and functions of the comptroller; by transferring directly to the mayor the bureaus of buildings now under the borough presidents; by giving the mayor the appointment of a city architect and a city engineer who were to be the architect and engineer of the borough presidents; and by largely increasing the mayor's power in other respects. The mayor and his appointee, the corporation counsel, were made a majority of a new board of administrative detail with power to determine all questions of the powers of all officers and departments. At the same time provisions for the mayor's accountability were weakened. The commissioners of accounts were reduced in number from two to one and prohibited from making investigations except when directed by the mayor. The comptroller's bureau of municipal investigation and statistics was taken away from the comptroller and its powers transferred to the commissioner of accounts appointed by the mayor. The comptroller's auditing power was taken away and transferred to the corporation counsel appointed by the mayor.

Civil service restrictions were to be broken down by abolishing the supervisory power of the State civil service commission and giving the municipal civil service commission practically unlimited power. For the present unpaid board of education a new paid board appointed by the mayor was substituted, and the political appointment of teachers made possible by abolishing the requirement for their appointment upon the nomination of a non-political board of superintendents from the highest candidates on the examination list. Other dangerous innovations were contained in the bill. These changes if separately proposed would inevitably have been defeated; but it was proposed to pass them as part of a defective and hastily prepared bill of 423 printed pages, miscalled a charter, but in fact adding by so much to the confusion and inconsistencies of the existing law.

Throughout the career of this remarkable bill, its advocates sought to avoid public scrutiny as much as possible. Immediately upon its introduction the bill was referred to the standing committees on cities of the two houses of the legislature and hearings upon it were announced to commence within a month from the time of its introduction, barely allowing time for its printing and examination by the public. This attitude served as a challenge to civic spirit. Representatives of a number of business and civic organizations joined together to study, expound and combat the bill. A vigorous opposition was organized and made itself felt in the public press and at the hearings. A joint statement making clear the real significance of the bill was issued by representatives of the City Club, the Allied Real Estate Interests, the Citizens Union, the Greater New York Taxpayers Conference, the Public Education Association and the Brooklyn League. A report containing an analysis of the provisions of both the Gaynor and the Hammond charters was prepared and published by a joint committee of Brooklyn civic organizations on the charter. Separate statements were also issued by the Citizens Union, the Civil Service Reform Association, the Public Education Association, the Bar Association and others. Vigorous protests were made at the hearings by a number of officials, private individuals and representatives of civic organizations, among them, Borough President McAneny, President Mitchel of the board of aldermen, Comptroller Prendergast and Deputy Comptroller Douglas Mathewson, and representatives of the Bureau of Municipal Research, the Educational Alliance, the Board of Education, the Public Education Association, the Civil Service Reform Association, the State Charities Aid Association, the Charity Organization Society and the Citizens Union. So seriously was the project damaged by the criticism to which it was subjected that it was withdrawn for revision after public announcement by the committee that, among other changes to be made, the comptroller's auditing power would be restored and the board of administrative detail abandoned.

Continuing their former tactics the advocates of the charter announced that it would be revised as quickly as possible and passed without further consideration. A protest against so indecent a proceeding was forwarded to the legislature, signed by the City Club, the Civil Service Reform Association, the Bar Association of the city, the Public Education Association, the Allied Real Estate Interests, the Citizens Union, the Brooklyn League, the Joint Committee on Charter Revision of Civic Bodies in Brooklyn, and the Greater New York Taxpayers Conference. Even this protest bade fair to be unheeded until Governor Dix announced on July 10 that he would not sign a charter for the city until the people of the city had been afforded an opportunity to know its contents.

The charter, as revised by the cities committees of the two houses of the legislature and known as the Cullen-Foley charter, was introduced on July 13. It turned out to be an entirely new bill containing 580 printed pages. While less incomplete in substance and less incompetent in point of draftsmanship than the Gaynor charter, it still lacked every requisite of a new charter and remained a cover for many vicious provisions. It retained the bad features of the former draft and introduced new ones. It remained essentially a "ripper" bill transferring to the mayor powers of other elected officials. Its advocates sought to justify this course on the plea that it would be beneficial and in accord with modern ideas to concentrate powers and responsibility in the mayor, but belied their professions by providing that responsibility should be diffused and the ballot lengthened by making the office of chamberlain elective, and by making the president of the finance committee of the board of aldermen (chosen by the usual Tammany majority of that board) a member of the board of estimate composed of officers elected by the people. There was, however, no concentration of power and responsibility, but instead a concentration of arbitrary and irresponsible power. The bill provided that all official acts should be presumed to be lawful. It did away with accountability by permitting the mayor to order the destruction of records; by abolishing the comptroller's power of audit as to amounts under $5000; by transferring to the mayor the comptroller's power of requiring reports from the various departments; by permitting the commissioners of accounts to investigate city departments only when directed by the mayor; by authorizing the mayor to appoint a substitute to take his place for whom he would not be responsible; and by taking away the governor's power to remove a delinquent mayor. It violated the principle of home rule by creating mandatory offices. It was filled with "jobs" and "jokers" for the benefit of the hungry politicians of Tammany Hall, who hoped to profit under cover of gratifying the mayor's desires and giving the city a new charter.

Of the new provisions, the one which attracted most attention was the "subway veto," so called. Between the time of the introduction of the Gaynor charter and the preparation of the Cullen-Foley bill, the mayor had found himself in a minority in the board of estimate and apportionment as to contracts to be made for the operation of subways to be constructed by the city. In order to resolve this conflict in his favor, he caused to be inserted in the Cullen-Foley charter a provision giving him a veto over grants of such contracts by the board. Public indignation at the tactics employed in support of the charter manifested itself in unmistakable fashion. The provision establishing a paid board of education and other provisions tending to throw the school system into politics were vigorously assailed by educators of prominence all over the country, headed by President Lowell of Harvard University and President Butler of Columbia University, with each of whom Mayor Gaynor engaged in a controversy. He indulged in similar controversies with other critics such as Lyman Abbott, William J. Schieffelin and Frederic W. Hinrichs, in which he devoted his energy to attacking the critics rather than to defending the charter. A charter conference was organized, composed of representatives from most of the organizations which signed the protest to the legislature. The charter was considered chapter by chapter at a series of conferences arranged by the City Club at which the supporters of the charter though invited failed to appear, and its many vices were pointed out by a number of competent critics. The State chamber of commerce held a special meeting and adopted resolutions, asking that opportunity for study of the charter be afforded.

The legislative committees held hearings on the bill during but five days in the middle of summer, commencing August 21. At those hearings the charter was bitterly assailed, among its opponents there being many representative men. During the hearings J. Hampden Dougherty, who had been an active member of the Ivins commission and had been consulted by Mayor Gaynor in the revision of the Gaynor charter, delivered an address before the City Club in which he clearly pointed out the objectionable character of the Cullen-Foley bill.

The majority of the legislative committees throughout the hearings showed themselves to be open partisans of the charter scheme and assumed a truculent attitude toward its opponents, but the storm of criticism was so effective that the committees promised before the close of the hearings that the comptroller's power of audit would be restored and at the termination of the hearings stated their intention of again revising the charter and of omitting some of the other most objectionable features.

Another revision was at once put under way, the results of which were submitted to the legislature on September 18, after it reconvened, in a most remarkable document consisting of some 4000 amendments to the Cullen-Foley bill, contained in a pamphlet of 159 printed pages. The committees in charge refused to grant hearings to objectors against this new revision and proposed to pass it without opportunity for public examination. This emergency found the civic spirit of the city still alert and active. A large delegation representing a number of business and civic organizations had attended before the governor to seek his aid against the contemplated outrage. Robert S. Binkerd, secretary of the City Club, was in charge of the delegation and addresses were made by Alfred E. Marling representing the City Club, Russell Benedict, president of the Brooklyn League, and Raymond V. Ingersoll, chairman of the executive committee of the Committee of One Hundred which had conducted the successful municipal campaign of 1909, the results of which were to be largely undone by the bill. Immediately upon the introduction of the amendments the Citizens Union and the City Club sent a committee composed of J. O. Hammitt, secretary of the Citizens Union, the secretary of the City Club, and the writer, as chairman of the charter committee of the Citizens Union, to establish itself in Albany in order to make such instant examination of the revision as was possible and to point out its meaning. The information thus given was disseminated through the newspapers by means of daily statements. In this way the public speedily learned the main facts about this latest draft.

This revision retained untouched some of the worst features of the former draft, such as the "ripper" provisions and the subway veto. It made only a pretense of doing away with some of the others, e.g., it nominally restored the comptroller's auditing power, but crippled it by making conclusive upon the comptroller the certificate of the city engineer appointed by the mayor as to compliance with contracts; it nominally continued the unpaid board of education but placed over it a salaried president; it ostensibly restored the board of hospital trustees but placed the active management of the hospitals in the hands of a superintendent appointed by the mayor. It actually added new and vicious features,—notably a provision giving the mayor a "suspensive" veto over the whole or any part of the budget adopted by the board of estimate, which, however, that board could override only within five days and upon which it could take only one vote; so that with the power in his hands of appointing the majority of the committee which was to prepare the budget in the first place the mayor was given substantial control over the entire city budget.

The entire membership of the board of estimate and apportionment, excepting only the mayor and the president of the Borough of Queens, who was then under charges upon which he was subsequently removed from office by the governor, protested against the passage of the bill. A striking manifestation of the opposition to the bill was afforded by a mass meeting at Cooper Union to protest against its enactment, speakers at which were J. Aspinwall Hodge, Borough President McAneny, Comptroller Prendergast and William M. Ivins, chairman of the Ivins commission. The press was practically a unit against the bill.

In utter disregard of the interests and the clearly indicated wishes of the people, the Tammany organization used every effort to force the bill through the legislature. After making still further amendments in a pretence of eliminating some of the most vicious features of the bill, it actually succeeded in passing the bill through the Assembly by a majority of one vote obtained by inducing one weak member to change his vote against it, but it was unable to secure enough votes to pass it in the Senate, and abandoned the bill on September 30. The debate in the Assembly indicated that the votes cast in favor of the bill were not based on any familiarity with its provisions. The only arguments made which indicated any knowledge of the contents of the bill were made by Assemblyman James A. Foley, chairman of the standing committee which had introduced the bill, and by William Allaire Shortt, a member of the committee, who had been an able and assiduous collaborator in all the charter drafts since 1909, and who first endeavored to eliminate from the bill as many of its weaknesses as possible, and later performed a great public service in publicly pointing out and opposing its evil features.

Despite the failure to pass the charter it became known that another attempt would be made to pass it in the legislature of 1912. The opponents of the charter made it an issue in the election of members of the Assembly in November, 1911. As a result of that election the Democratic Assembly was replaced by one with a strong Republican majority, and the defeat of the charter was thus made certain and complete.

That a political machine should have come so near to success in a shameless attempt to impose a new form of government on the greatest city in the country without consideration and against the will of its people in a "ripper" bill pronounced by all competent and disinterested critics to be both vicious and grossly defective, might well tend to discourage the optimistic student of municipal affairs; but on the other hand, the active, intelligent and self-sacrificing public spirit displayed in the fight conducted against the charter, and the final defeat of the project by the force of public opinion, awakened and impelled by the energetic and effective coöperation of business and civic organizations, may be taken as an augury of the increasing efficiency of an aroused civic consciousness.

THE "LEVY ELECTION LAW" IN NEW YORK

THE fate which has overtaken the iniquitous ballot provisions of the "Levy Election Law" passed by the 1911 legislature in New York is an occasion for rejoicing among all persons interested in fair electoral methods, and is of especial interest also on account of the effect the decision of the Court of Appeals of New York, holding such provisions unconstitutional, may have upon municipal elections.

The ballot provisions of this law were craftily devised to sterilize and render innocuous future political combinations against Tammany in New York City. Incidentally the influence of the independent voter who splits his ticket was to be minimized. But the vigorous and far reaching opinion of the Court of Appeals in *Matter of Hopper v. Britt*, 203 N. Y., 144, has brought this fine scheme to naught.

New York has the party-column type of ballot. Heretofore no restriction has been placed upon the nomination of the same candidate or candidates by any number of parties or independent political bodies. Judicial candidates of distinguished service are frequently, if not usually, renominated by the two leading parties regardless of their party affiliation, and appear on the ballot in the columns of both. Municipal candidates also are frequently the subject of fusion. There has been in New York at least some abuse of this right to receive plural nominations, and various "mushroom" organizations having no real justification have sprung up from time to time solely to give certain candidates the advantage attaching to an appearance in several columns on the ballot.

This undoubted evil, and the consequent increase in the size and complexity of our ballot, was made the handle for the passage of the ballot provisions of the Levy law. Following the example of Michigan, Ohio and Wisconsin, where the plan had been upheld by the courts (*Todd v. Election Commissions*, 104 Mich., 474; *State v. Bode*, 55 Ohio St., 224; *State v. Anderson*, 100 Wis., 523), the Levy law provided that the name of no candidate should appear more than once upon the ballot. If nominated by more than one party, the candidate might elect in which party ticket or column his name should appear, but he might choose but one, and in the ticket or column not so chosen, in place of the name, was to appear the words "See....... column," the blank being filled with the name of the party in whose column such candidate's name did appear. It was further provided that a voting-mark in the party circle at the head of a column containing the cross-references should *not* be counted as a vote for candidates so referred to, but should be counted only for those whose *names* were printed in the column. Obviously several results would flow from such a scheme.

A party nominating the candidate of another party would appear in the field with a maimed ticket, to its great disadvantage and that of its other candidates, because it is well known that an incomplete ticket does not receive the same consideration from the voters as a complete ticket. Nor could voters desiring to support the entire ticket of such a party express such desire by a single mark in the party circle, as could the supporters of other tickets, but such voters must follow the cross-references into the other parts of the ballot, and make, perhaps, many marks; in other words, other tickets might be voted "straight," but not this.

Not content with this discrimination against fusion and the independent voter, the law went one step further in the case of "independent bodies," such as municipal parties, promoters of independent judicial tickets and the like (in New York a political organization cannot qualify as a recognized "political party" unless it casts 10,000 votes for its candidate for governor), and provided that an "independent body" fusing throughout its entire ticket should not receive a party-column on the ballot at all, in other words, could not offer its ticket as such to the voters at the polls. A "political party" thus in complete fusion with another, retained an emasculated column filled with cross-references. However unsatisfactory such a limited appearance might be, to that extent at any rate the "party" might appear. But not so the "independent body." Of course, such a provision amounts to a prohibition against an eclectic municipal ticket made up from the best of the party candidates.

It was sought to support this law as a "mere regulation of the form of the ballot;" but the Court of Appeals refused to shut its eyes to the practical effect of these discriminations, holding them to be "of a very substantial character." Its opinion says that "every elector shall have the right to cast his vote without unnecessary discrimination against him as to the manner of casting his vote;" that "each voter shall have the same facilities as any other voter in expressing his will at the ballot box, so far as practicable;" that "while the constitution does not guarantee that the elector shall be allowed to express his vote by a single mark, he is guaranteed the right to express his will by a single mark *if* other voters are given the right to express theirs by a single mark, and there is no difficulty in according the right to all;" that "inequality in the facilities afforded the electors in casting their votes may defeat the will of the people as thoroughly as restrictions which the courts would hold to operate as a disfranchisement of voters;" and that "the liberty of the electors in the exercise of the right vested in them by the constitution to choose public officers on whatever principle or dictated by whatever motive they see fit, unless these motives contravene common morality and are, therefore, criminal, such as bribery, violence, intimidation or fraud, cannot be denied."

It may be pointed out that these principles are held to inhere in the New

York constitution by implication rather than by virtue of express provision. *A fortiori* ought this decision to be followed in states where discrimination in political rights is expressly prohibited by their bills of rights.

As a broad assertion of the spirit rather than the letter of the constitutional safeguards against the invasion of the citizens' fundamental rights, this New York case is much more significant than the somewhat similar California case (*Murphy v. Curry*, 137 Cal., 479). The California statute coupled with the restriction of a fusion candidate to a single place on the ballot, the requirement that in the column of the party in which the name did not appear should be printed the words "No nomination." Much was made by the California court of this provision requiring the statement of an untruth, the party in question having in fact made a nomination, but its nominee being excluded from the ballot at the appropriate place. The New York ballot, on the other hand, with its cross-reference of "See........column" was strictly truthful. It should be said for the California court, however, that, like the New York case, it carefully considered the Michigan, Ohio and Wisconsin cases and disapproved of their reasoning. Ohio has since repealed the obnoxious provision.

It is probably entirely clear that the above discussion relates wholly to the party-column type of ballot, and that the restriction of a candidate to a single place on the ballot may be accomplished legally in connection with the "Massachusetts" or office-group type of ballot.

ALBERT S. BARD.[1]

INTER-CITY MILK INSPECTION

IT SEEMS safe to say that none of the many marked advances in municipal sanitation during the past ten years has been more widespread and none more productive, or at least promising, of valuable results than the attempts which have been made to control the milk supplies of our cities and towns. Scores if not hundreds of municipalities have passed milk ordinances which provide for a more or less rigid sanitary control of all milk offered for sale, beginning with the conditions of the herd and its stabling, continuing with the milkers, milking, cooling, bottling and shipping the milk, and not stopping until the milk is delivered at the consumer's door, at a temperature of, say, 50° F. Fortunately, many communities have established and maintained dairy and milk inspection services, including laboratory facilities—without all which the most rigid ordinance is of no avail. A number of cities, but all-too-few, have not spared the prosecution of such milk producers and distributors as have failed to comply with the law, and some cities have given ample publicity to the character of every milk supply, be it good, indifferent or bad.

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[1] Albert E. Bard was council for the complainants.

Such work is bound to have its effect upon the health of the community for which it is done. But what becomes of the milk from dairies whose supply is condemned and excluded from a given city? Obviously, it is quite sure to go to those cities which are not yet protecting their babies and their other milk users from the dangers of dirty, warm and disease-infected milk.

Even the municipalities which are carrying on good milk work are liable to be inflicted, at least temporarily, with bad milk excluded from other cities, and if this were not true it is evident that great gains, both sanitary and economic, would result from coöperative milk inspection. How great these gains might be will be the better appreciated when attention is called to the fact that although few cities are yet making as frequent and as thorough dairy inspections as are needed there is already considerable duplication of inspection in some of those districts from which milk is sent to various cities, and will be much more as effective milk control becomes general. Perhaps the force of these statements will be increased when it is stated that the milk supply of our larger cities is drawn from distances as great as three or four hundred miles in many if not all directions, and as large cities are in close proximity all through the eastern United States this means much overlapping of the milk-producing areas tributary to the various cities.

All this is by way of introduction and to give point to the leadership of the Cleveland board of health, under Dr. C. W. Eddy, chief veterinarian, in securing a beginning of inter-city milk control by Cleveland, Cincinnati, Columbus, Youngstown, Akron, Lorain, Ohio, and Pittsburgh, Pa.

According to a personal letter from Dr. Eddy, Cleveland took the initiative in dairy inspection in that part of the country in August, 1906. After improvements had been effected in many dairies, and the supplies from others had been excluded from Cleveland, it was found that the condemned milk, or milk from the condemned dairies, was being sent to other cities. These having been visited and a willingness to coöperate having been found, a conference was called and held in Pittsburgh on October 12, 1910, at which representatives from the cities already named appeared. Uniform requirements controlling the milk supply were agreed upon, not as rigid as those in force in some other cities, but commendable.

It was then resolved that no milk or cream rejected by one of the cities for non-compliance with the adopted standards would be accepted by any other city in the conference. June 1, 1911, was set as the time for putting in force a requirement that every dairy must provide a milk house. Field work was then begun by some of the cities. At a second conference (July, 1911), at which all the cities but Youngstown were represented, it was decided to postpone until January 1, 1912, the date of enforcement, except that Cleveland announced that it would enforce the requirement on September 1.

Cleveland began its third inspection of dairies on September 1, and up to November 6, following, it had excluded 329 dairies (mostly of only one to five cows each). Cleveland notified all the other coöperating cities, and with one exception these have refused to admit the milk excluded by Cleveland.

It appears that Cleveland is doing about all of the original work of exclusion, for up to November 6 it had received notices of original exclusion from Cincinnati, only, and but two from there. However, the agreement was not to go into full effect until January 1, 1912.

It is to be hoped that the work so well begun will be continued—not only in the group of cities mentioned, but also by other groups. But it is doubtful whether the field will be adequately covered until a hand is taken by the state governments, and federal coöperation may also be necessary. For the present, at least, sanitary milk control must be carried on chiefly by localities, singly or in coöperation. Such state inspection as has yet been undertaken appears to be scattering and irregular. Certainly, until provision is made for state inspection by an adequate staff of competent men, free from the political spoils system and from suspicion of blackmail, graft and inefficiency, the progressive communities having honest and efficient local boards of health should be armed with ample legislative power, state and local, and provided with ample funds, to carry on this most vital work, both independently and in coöperation with other cities. M. N. Baker.[1]

WHAT BOSTON-1915 IS DOING

EARLY in its career, Boston-1915 defined itself as "an organized plan for reaching the people and making them comprehend that in so far as a city may be wasteful of money or of lives, in so far as it may be ugly, dirty and noisy, in so far as its facilities for transportation, education, sanitation, recreation, etc., may fall short of what other cities have, the fault is the people's and the remedy is in their hands" . . . . . . "Boston-1915 appreciates that probably in no other city of the United States is so much zealous, unselfish and public-spirited work being carried on as in Boston; but to be effective these efforts must be systematized, mobilized and made part of a definite campaign. To apply the principles of business organization to a federation of all the agencies dealing with all forms of municipal development, and to focus this combined effort by setting definite goals for early achievement is the single aim of the Boston-1915 plan."

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[1] M. N. Baker is the editor of *Engineering News*.

Just as the modern physician is less concerned with the cure of disease than with the preservation of health, so Boston-1915 is interested not in reforming the city but in making and keeping the city sound. It believes in preventing wastes and evils rather than in palliating them; and one of its fundamental principles is that the shortcomings of municipal life are due far less to the activity of the forces making for evil than to the passivity and especially the lack of cohesion, of the forces making for good.

Boston-1915 was the first formulated attempt in the United States—and one of its best achievements is the number of its imitators—to organize not only existing civic activities, but also the general "goodwill" into an effective agency for getting important things done. It has been through two important stages of its development and is now in the beginning of the third. The first of those stages was that of publicity, in which the organization had to overcome doubt, misunderstanding and even ridicule; the second was that of organization, in which a definite plan for coördinating hundreds of unrelated bodies had to be devised and made effective; while the third stage, that of scientific adjustment, is the perfecting of the organization, in the light of experience, by discarding useless machinery and by seeking short, practical avenues to definite, well-considered ends.

To the publicity period belong the exposition, held in the old Art Museum in 1909, and designed to visualize both the extent of civic and social endeavor in Boston and the need of greater coöperation; and the civic advance campaign, with its accompanying pageant, in 1910. The process of organization involved the creating of thirteen conferences, each dealing with some special phase of civic work; the preparing by those conferences of "syllabi" of things needing to be done; and the agreeing upon a "Program for 1911" as a basis for common work.

This program included thirteen major and minor projects, most of which have been carried through or have been successfully launched. The fundamental project, that of establishing a city planning commission, has taken shape in a temporary commission, created by the recent legislature. It is authorized to make an investigation of the question and to bring a bill for a permanent commission before the next General Court. This preliminary body is holding hearings and collecting data, and will have ready, at the opening of the legislative session, an Act which, if passed, will establish a central authority for coördinating the now scattered and substantially unrelated activities of thirty-nine municipalities and a number of boards and commissions into a well-considered plan for metropolitan growth. Should Boston–1915 be instrumental in bringing about for Greater Boston that primary need of every American city, a municipal plan, it will have done a work of surpassing importance.

The organizations coöperating as Boston-1915 have done much more, however, than to agitate this vital matter of a city plan. They have been active in crystallizing public opinion into a general belief in and desire for an extended use of the public school plant. They have been a determining factor in securing the building of centrally located convenience stations, those essential aids to health and temperance. They have brought to the front the important problems of public recreation, involving, in the case of Boston, the real use of its magnificent park system; the proper supervision of its many playgrounds, the utilization of vacant lands and of armories, and the building of a public stadium. In this connection, Boston-1915 conducted during the summers of 1909 and 1910 two highly successful series of boys' games; inaugurated, in the latter year, a "safe and sane" celebration of the Fourth of July; was the patron of the extraordinary pageant, "The Making of a Perfect City," held a year ago; has been a leader in the campaign for a real use of the magnificent Charles River Basin; has created a municipal athletic association for the conducting of summer and winter sports for all the youth of the city, as well as a public recreation league; and has been urgent for the consolidation of four existing municipal departments, those having charge respectively of the parks, public grounds, baths and music, into a single department of public recreation.

To the housing problem Boston-1915 has made definite contribution through the report of its housing committee and by following up the enforcement of existing laws, and is indicating one of the ways out through its studies of the building and financing of so-called garden suburbs; to the work of modernizing education it has contributed through its active share in developing vocational guidance and in working for the better training of immigrants, the study of school "misfits," and the investigation by the State Board of Education of the problem of part-time schooling; in the directions of sounder public health, better handling of the questions concerning defectives and delinquents, and a number of other activities profoundly affecting city welfare, it has made, directly or indirectly, many contributions of which the limitations of space forbid enumeration. Above all Boston-1915 has been effective, not only in bringing to the point of actual accomplishment many things which had long been fruitlessly discussed, but also in creating in the public mind a comprehension of better municipal conditions and a determination to secure them which has never before existed in nearly so high a degree. An important factor in this achievement has been the magazine, "New Boston," issued every month from the office of Boston-1915.

Having thus established itself and demonstrated the value of getting together, Boston-1915 is entering upon its third period, that of increasing, in the light of its more than two years of experience, its efficiency. This it purposes to do by securing a more direct participation in its work of the most active and powerful among its constituent organizations, by broadening the functions and strengthening the autonomy of its various conferences, and by concentrating its efforts upon certain fundamental propositions such as city planning, public health, the effective use of the city's educational and recreational facilities, and the starting of what, from the beginning, has been a principal goal of Boston-1915,—an Exposition which shall present Boston, the other cities of New England, and, as far as possible, those of the rest of the world, as "live exhibits," which shall have as its keynote "better living for all the citizens," and the master motive of which shall be true "reciprocity between men and money."

James P. Munroe.[1]

THE PAGEANT OF THETFORD

THE civic achievement of uniting a country community for the development of the resources of their town by means of a great out-door drama makes the Pageant of Thetford unique among the celebrations of the year. Thetford is an agricultural town of Vermont with a population of 1182 in about forty-two square miles. Even this small population is divided among six villages situated from two to nine miles apart, and the spirit of local independence is still strong in the blood. So the town is exceptionally exposed to the troubles that are hampering the progress and sapping the life of many of our farming communities in the East. The one hundred and fiftieth anniversary of the town came last August. For their celebration the people of the town produced a pageant or drama of the community on the banks of the Connecticut River, which presented, beside the history of the town, a study of the present economic condition of the town and its causes, and a definite suggestion of the renewed prosperity of the town in the future when plans that have already been adopted are realized. It was a study of the rural problem, and in the instance of Thetford at least a contribution toward its solution.

As Master of the Pageant, the writer, who became interested in the civic possibilities of pageantry while in the Russell Sage Foundation, wrote and produced the drama and temporarily directed the movement which made the beginnings of the town development. These beginnings have since the pageant been continued by the people themselves and are progressing vigorously and successfully. The drama consisted of twelve realistic episodes, divided into four groups which set forth respectively: (1) the making of the town; (2) the development of the town; (3) the depletion of the town; and (4) the future of the town. These groups of realistic episodes were bound together by five symbolic scenes, beginning with the introduction showing by means of the new dramatic dancing the three-fold physical character of the town with its mountains, rivers, and intervale, and ending with the tribute of the town to America and to Vermont in the finale, in which the assembled mass of the pageant, nearly half of the population, hailed the approach of America and of Vermont riding on horseback with their escort of other States at full gallop down a long vista by the side of a heavy pine grove. Technically the drama rigidly obeyed the dramatic laws of construction; it was a dramatic whole, not a mere series of historical scenes related mainly by the fact of their selection for presentation. The drama was written with a view to making it available in reading form and thereby continuing the immediate influence of the pageant after the performances were past, and it was published by the Pageant Committee.

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[1] James P. Monroe is the director of the Boston 1915 movement.

The conception of the rural problem therein set forth is that it consists, first, in a fundamental loss of heart and loss of belief in themselves on the part of the farmers of the depleted regions, and second, in a lack of adaptation to the present conditions of the business life of the whole country. In Thetford vigorous community health has been restored by the joy and the success of producing all together in the drama of their own town a real work of art, and by the introduction, under the guidance of the United States Department of Agriculture and the Vermont Agricultural College, of scientific methods of agriculture and also of other measures for the development of their educational life and their culture. Among the particular things that thus far have been done or been started in the town in connection with the pageant and which were mirrored in the drama are: a special study with a government expert of the adaptability of the soils of each farm; a cow-test association for the improvement of their dairy herds; the improvement of pasturage; the proper care of the forests and wood-lots; coöperative purchase of farm supplies; an annual town fair, to be a gauge of what they have accomplished during the past year, the first of which was one of the episodes of the pageant; the up-building of the academy; the introduction of the Boy Scouts and of the Camp Fire Girls into the town; the Thetford Kitchen, in which the women will make small products for the market; a town museum of local historical antiquities; an orchestra and chorus; and union town services, the second of which was held on the pageant grounds on the Sunday of pageant week. In none of these is the interest local to any one village; it is common to the whole town and a source of social unity, so that there is a constantly increasing solidarity of community life that will make the town strong in its continued struggle with the rural problem and of use to other similar communities as an encouraging example of what can be done. The drama is the picture of life, and in this new form, the pageant, the drama of the life of a community, it has great possibilities for the solution of serious public questions, as has, in the case of Thetford at least, been successfully proven. WILLIAM CHAUNCY LANGDON.[1]

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[1] William Chauncy Langdon is associated with the Russell Sage Foundation.

AN INTERNATIONAL MUNICIPAL BUREAU

THERE exist at present in a number of countries national municipal associations. In the United States there are, for example, the National Municipal League, the League of American Municipalities, the various state leagues, associations of mayors and similar standard organizations; in Canada the Union of Canadian Municipalities, and its children the various provincial unions; in England the Board of Associated Municipalities, in Scotland the Convention of Scottish Burghs; in South Africa the South African Municipal Association; on the continent of Europe various groupings. They have no regular communication with each other; yet each is in possession of experiences and methods which might be of use to the rest for purposes of comparison and adoption, not to mention that progress, enlightenment and humanitarian kindnesss which come from a simple knowledge of the rest of the world.

I have been for some time proposing to form what might be named the International Municipal congress and Bureau, whose membership shall be composed primarily of existing municipal associations. To these might be added other classes of members, such as cities, governments and universities; also, honorary members, and associate members, such as eminent students of political science. In each country a secretary-treasurer would be appointed, preferably the secretary of one of the principal national municipal associations. His present office would be made the bureau of information of this international association. The expenses would be raised by him from the membership within his particular country. His principal duties would be to establish regular intercommunication with all the other offices of the same kind, obtain exchange of all publications, and maintain his share of an international bureau of information for the use of members and the public. One of these offices, to be chosen later, would be the central office. In the meantime a provisional centre of organization might be chosen by those first interested. The National Municipal League is in my opinion the natural centre for such organization.

Every few years a congress might be held, arranged much like other municipal gatherings. Some city would extend its hospitality and the use of its buildings, delegates would attend, discuss the programme, and elect officers. These congresses could not fail to be of a most interesting and instructive character, and the information brought back, and the other results attained, would be highly valuable. For instance, it is obvious that no municipal delegate from America could visit the City of Paris under such friendly official guidance without bringing back useful knowledge. Nor could he visit Glasgow, Birmingham, London, Berlin, or Brussels in vain. While, conversely, the New World has a great deal that would interest delegates from Europe, Australia, or South Africa. But if such a congress be not convenient the establishment of regular correspondence on a recognized basis would be a great instrument of advantage, and could be made productive of large benefits to civilization.

The idea so far has been favorably received. It is thought well of by good judges in America and England; and the Union of Canadian Municipalities has formally endorsed it. It is respectfully suggested that the executive of the National Municipal League take it into favorable consideration, and take such action upon it as they may deem expedient. If so, at least this continent and the British Empire could be speedily brought into line.

W. D. Lighthall, K.C.[1]

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[1] Honorary Secretary of the Union of Canadian Municipalities, Montreal.

REPORTS AND DOCUMENTS

Edited by John A. Fairlie

Public Service Commission Reports.[1]—Prior to 1907 there were railroad commissions in most States, but there was not in any State a commission having supervision of all of the other important public utilities, street railway, gas, electric light and power and telephone. In Massachusetts, there was, in addition to the railroad commission, the gas and electric light commission established in 1885 and the highway commission which in 1906 was given supervision over telegraph and telephone companies. The act creating the New York public service commissions became a law June 6, 1907, and was followed July 9, 1907, by a Wisconsin act, giving the existing railroad commission jurisdiction over public utilities. The Oklahoma corporation commission was created by the first State constitution, which was adopted July 16, 1907. A Georgia act of August 22, 1907, conferred on the railroad commission certain authority over street railways, gas and electric companies. The Vermont public service commission was created in 1908. In 1910, commissions were created in Maryland and New Jersey and in 1911 in Connecticut, Kansas, New Hampshire, Ohio, Nevada and Washington.

In addition to the State commissions certain city commissions and departments have been created. A city public utility commission was created in 1908 for Kansas City, Mo; in 1909, for Los Angeles, Cal., St. Joseph, Mo., and St. Louis, Mo.; and in 1911 for Wilmington, Del. The office of superintendent of public utilities was created in 1908 for Seattle, Washington, and the office of public service commissioner in 1911 for Houston, Texas.

The character and content of the annual reports for the first and second New York public service districts differ widely, first, on account of the different powers vested by law and second, on account of the difference in the character of the two districts. The commission for the first district has been given powers and duties with relation to the laying out and construction of rapid transit railroads which formerly devolved on the board of rapid transit railroad commissioners. This enormous task has no counterpart in the work of the commission for the second district, nor in that of public service commissions of other States. On the other hand, the control of telephone and telegraph companies is entirely under the supervision of the commission for the second district and matters in relation to transportation of freight and express are almost entirely under the supervision of that commission. The commission for the first district deals with a very large population within a small area. The congested character of the district creates problems as to service, equipment and methods of supervision that either do not exist at all or not with the same intensity throughout the rest of the State. The commission for the first district deals with comparatively few corporations most of them with large capital and output, while the commission for the second district deals with a very large number of corporations, most of them having a small capitalization and output.

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[1] Report of the Public Service Commission of Maryland for the eight months ending December 31, 1910, 399 pages.

Twenty-sixth Annual Report of the Board of Gas and Electric Light Commissioners of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts, 1910, 211+334 pages.

Forty-second Annual Report of the Board of Railroad Commissioners, Commonwealth of Massachusetts, 1910, 389+962 pages.

Eighteenth Annual Report of the Massachusetts Highway Commission for the year ending November 30, 1910, 284 pages.

First Annual Report of the Board of Public Utility Commissioners for the State of New Jersey, 1910, 285 pages.

Third Annual Report of the Public Service Commission, First District, New York, year ending December 31, 1909, 3 volumes.

Fourth Annual Report of the Public Service Commission, First District, New York, year ending December 31, 1910, volume 1.

Third Annual Report of the Public Service Commission, Second District, New York, year ending December 31, 1909, 2 volumes.

Fourth Annual Report of the Public Service Commission, Second District, New York, year ending December 31, 1910, volume 1.

Fourth Annual Report of the Railroad Commission of Wisconsin, year ending June 30, 1910.

Second and Third Annual Reports of the Corporation Commission of the State of Oklahoma, 1909–1910, 1002 pages.

Twelfth Biennial Report of the Public Service Commission of the State of Vermont, 1908–1910, 974 pages.

First Annual Report of the Public Utilities Commission, Kansas City, Mo., April 17, 1911, 59 pages.

First Annual Report for the Board of Public Utilities, Los Angeles, California, June 30, 1910, 195 pages.

Report to Municipal Assembly of St. Louis on rates for electric light and power, St. Louis Public Service Commission, 1911.

Report of St. Louis Public Service Commission to the House of Delegates on the transfer system of the United Railways Company, October 23, 1911, 14 pages and 32 maps.

Volume 3 of the annual report of the commission for the first district is devoted to statistics of public service corporations and is prepared by the bureau of statistics and accounts under the direction of Dr. Adna F. Weber, chief statistician. It contains very complete annual reports from each company, all of which have been subjected to careful examination by the accountants of the commission. The information contained in the reports is also carefully tabulated and subjected to close analysis and interpretation so as to bring out more clearly matters of importance in connection with public regulation. The transportation statistics contains, at page 461, an interesting statistical study in relation to the average length of ride on the subway. This intensive study of public service corporation finances and statistics is a unique feature of the work of the commission for the first district. Volume 1 of the fourth annual report of the commission for the first district contains a record of the year's work and includes as an appendix a report by Commissioner Milo R. Maltbie on "Franchises of Electrical Corporations in Greater New York." This is a report of 237 pages containing numerous diagrams showing the corporate history of each system of companies. These charts and the analysis of the franchises contained in the report were prepared by Delos F. Wilcox, chief of the franchise bureau of the commission.

Volume 1 of the fourth annual report of the commission for the second district contains a very interesting account of the various activities of the commission and a complete compilation of the orders issued by it. Volume 2 of the report is a statistical volume. It does not include the annual reports from the companies but contains a tabulation of information from such reports. The opinions of the commission for the second district are not printed in the annual report. They are printed in pamphlet form and are afterwards issued in volume form entitled "Public Service Commission Reports, Second District of New York." But one volume has thus far been issued. Heretofore the opinions of the commission for the first district have been printed in a compilation of decisions and orders issued as volume 2 of the second and third annual reports. The fourth annual report will contain only the orders of the commission and the opinions thus far issued will be reprinted in a separate volume. All important opinions are printed in separate form. The commission for the first district also prints for use prior to the appearance of its annual report a quarterly summary of the reports of street railway companies. Comparing the reported decisions of the commission for the second New York district with those of the Wisconsin commission it is interesting to note that in New York there have been very few rate cases while in Wisconsin the rate cases have apparently taken up a large portion of the commission's time. In New York, on the other hand, a considerable number of the important decisions have related to the issue of stocks and bonds while in Wisconsin owing to a difference in the regulating statute, the question of stock and bond issues has heretofore been relatively unimportant.

The fourth annual report of the Wisconsin railroad commission contains a very interesting summary of its various activities and to a certain extent of its organization and methods of work. The commission refers to the time required for the disposition of cases coming before it and indicates the reasons why some cases require many months of work and investigation before a decision can be reached and says: "Clamor for immediate action has never tempted the commission to swerve from such a deliberate course of action as the necessities of the case require." The commission includes in its report detailed financial and operating statistics of steam railroads, electric railway, express, electric, gas, water, telephone and heating companies. The opinions of the commission are not printed in the annual report. They are issued first in separate pamphlet form and then in a series of bound volumes entitled "Wisconsin Railroad Commission Reports." Five of these bound volumes have already been issued and the separate opinions now being issued will be included in the seventh volume. Each bound volume of the opinions contains a very complete subject digest of matters passed upon therein. Many of the decisions are voluminous. The decision in *State Journal Printing Company vs. Madison Gas and Electric Company* (4 W. R. C. R. 501) occupies 250 pages. Though there is considerable repetition throughout the various opinions, they contain exceedingly important discussions of problems of valuation and rate-making. Discussions of this kind are particularly important during the present formative period in the evolution of theories and methods of public utility regulation. Such full discussion, has its dangers, however, from the standpoint of the commission itself as it necessarily creates precedents which in the future it may be necessary for the commission to modify or reverse.

The forty-second annual report of the Massachusetts board of railroad commissioners and the twenty-sixth annual report of the board of gas and electric light commissioners follow the same general form as previous reports. The gas and electric light report contains at page 10 an interesting discussion of the work of the board in enforcing the provisions of chapter 651 of the acts of 1910 relative to the abatement of smoke in the Boston metropolitan district. As heretofore, the report of the railroad commissioners is published in two editions one of which contains a copy of the annual reports made by each railroad company to the commission. The report contains at page 64 an order requiring the equipment of all street surface cars with both fenders and wheelguards, the types of such fenders and wheelguards to be approved by the commission. The Massachusetts highway commission includes as Part 2 of its eighteenth annual report its fifth annual report on companies engaged in the transmission of intelligence by electricity for the year ending November 30, 1910. This report contains the results of the commission's investigation of the New England Telephone and Telegraph Company concerning its property and rates of service with particular reference to its rate schedule in the Boston metropolitan and suburban districts. The commission submits the results of its investigation in the form of a letter to the company recommending the adoption of new rate schedules. As a part of this investigation the commission had an appraisal made of the property of the company, information concerning which was published in the previous annual report.

The first annual report of the New Jersey public utility commissioners covers the year 1910. The former board of railroad commissioners which was created in 1907 had been changed to a board of public utility commissioners by chapter 41 of the Laws of 1910. An act passed in 1911 greatly strengthened the powers of the commission. Prior to 1911, the board did not have power to require changes in rates. In its 1910 report the board states that it had been the experience of the board "that most of the things accomplished are done through negotiations with the companies and in compliance with recommendations rather than by the issuance of orders." The report contains a tabulation of replies from gas companies in relation to methods of testing meters and also a tabulation of rates charged by each company for gas, for electricity and for water.

The first annual report of the public service commission of Maryland is for the eight months ending December 31, 1910. The report includes the opinions and orders of the commission, statistics of accidents, gas and electric meter tests and certain tabulated statistics from the reports of the companies.

The name of the Vermont board of railroad commissioners was changed to public service commission, April 1, 1909. The first report issued by the public service commission is entitled "Twelfth Biennial Report of the Public Service Commission, June 30, 1908, to June 30, 1910." Matters referred to in the report relate chiefly to steam railroads. The report contains at page 263, "specifications for treatment of high tension lines crossing and paralleling telephone lines," and at page 278 "specifications for joint use of poles by telephone and electric light and power companies."

The second and third annual report of the corporation commission of Oklahoma covering the years 1909 and 1910 is printed in a single volume. The volume contains a full compilation of orders and opinions issued by the commission most of which relate to steam railroad matters.

The first annual report of the public utility commission of Kansas City covers the year ending April 17, 1911. A public utility commission had been created in 1908. Apparently this commission was not very active and a new commission was created by an ordinance approved May 3, 1910. The report of the commission shows that it has given considerable attention to the question of street railway service and it recommends an ordinance for adoption by the common council fixing a certain schedule for the operation of street cars on the various car lines. Orders were issued by the commission to stop discriminations in electricity rates and on the recommendation of the commission an ordinance was adopted providing for the testing of electric meters. The report contains a table showing comparative electric rates in eighteen cities. The table shows also in each case the source of power and the price of coal and price of water.

Thus far the public service commission of St. Louis has not published annual reports. It has, however, issued a very valuable special report on electricity rates which includes a valuation of the property of the electric company and an extended discussion of the theory of charging for electric current. It has also under date of October 23, 1911, issued a report on the transfer system of the United Railways Company. The report is intended to show by detailed tables, maps and diagrams the extent to which the company is violating the provisions of an ordinance requiring that "transfers shall be given so as to transport passengers by a continuous trip from any point on the system to any other point on the system."

The first annual report of the board of public utilities of Los Angeles is for the period December 27, 1909, to June 30, 1910. The board is required under the ordinance to recommend to the city council prior to March 1 of each year a schedule of charges for services rendered by water, electric light and power, gas and telephone companies. The report contains such schedules as recommended to the city council and also the action of the city council thereon. There is also a comparison of rates charged in Los Angeles with rates charged in other cities and tabulations of electric lighting rates and telephone rates in many cities of the United States. The report also contains information concerning the other activities of the commission and an interesting discussion of many subjects of public utility regulation. ROBERT H. WHITTEN.

New York.

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The Social Evil.[1]—These two reports can well be reviewed together because of their similarity in purpose, sincerity, and conclusions. The difference in thoroughness of the investigations, and in voluminousness of the reports is only to be expected when one considers the difference in the size of the cities and the fact that a great deal of money was spent in practical work by the Chicago commission. Of the sum expended by the latter the city council alone appropriated $10,000. When one considers beyond this that the members of this commission were themselves unpaid, although some of them gave a great deal of time to the work, one can realize that the report is well founded on actual investigations. It is interesting to note that Mr. George J. Kneeland, who conducted the field work for the New York committee which studied the social evil, was selected to do the same for the Chicago commission. The Minneapolis commission was not so ambitious with regard to carrying out its own investigations, but derived its information from the police and many other authorities. Altogether the Chicago report is the most thorough-going document of its kind ever issued. Both commissions have had the advantage of preceding work, for instance, that done by the committee of fifteen of New York, and they seem to have taken into account practically all sides of sex vice which can be studied by methods of social investigation. We apprehend that the high water mark of investigation of the social evil set by these reports will not soon be passed by any American or other municipalities, whatever conclusions may be arrived at elsewhere.

It should be distinctly understood that these reports represent what might be called a strictly official point of view, they present no attempt to look at the question in other ways. For instance, the physiological and psychological factors of causation for the social evil, which have received and are receiving a great deal of attention in professional circles, and even in lay literature, are evidently purposely avoided. The standpoints of Ellen Key, Havelock Ellis, Madame Tarnowsky, and other students of the sex vice, are not discussed in the report. We do not state this as a point of adverse criticism, but merely that the reader may know what to expect.

The Minneapolis report assumes in a number of places a distinctly polemical attitude, very cogently stating its reasons for believing in this or that method of meeting the demands of the situation. By this, it would seem that the members of the Minneapolis commission had found less difficulty in reaching conclusions than had those of the Chicago commission. Then, proportionately, the former report is much more given to recommendations; the latter to stating ascertained facts.

It must be noted that the state of affairs already existing in the two cities was widely different when the studies were made. Chicago has long carried out an indeterminate policy. Notwithstanding that the state laws of Illinois make many phases of conducting or abetting sexual vice a criminal offense, the police have neglected those laws and have handled the whole situation from time to time as the policies of this or that police official, or mayor would dictate. Nothing in either the city ordinances, or in the rules of the police department have overtly stood for or against segregation. The resulting state of affairs has had all the faults as well as some virtues engendered by this system. On the other hand, in Minneapolis the mayor and police authorities undertook in 1910 a definite policy of suppression and strict enforcement of the law against social vice. This followed upon a long period in which segregation was the accepted policy of every administration in that city. The more recent policy of Minneapolis finds high favor in the eyes of the local vice commission and they carefully recommend that it be continued with ever increasing vigilance. On the other hand, the Chicago commission sets its face strongly against the way things are going on in Chicago and recommends much alteration of the conditions.

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[1] *The Social Evil in Chicago.*—A study of existing conditions with recommendations by the Vice Commission of Chicago, transmitted to the mayor and the city council, April 5, 1911. Dean Walter T. Sumner, chairman, Edwin W. Sims, secretary.

The Report of the Vice Commission of Minneapolis, submitted July 10, 1911. Rev. Marion D. Shutter, chairman, Eugene T. Lies, secretary.

The recommendations of the Chicago commission have added significance since they specifically look forward to conditions entirely different from the state of affairs found to exist under the administration which appointed the commission. The Minneapolis commission is almost in unanimity with its predecessor in the field, the Chicago vice commission, but since the policy already said to be adopted in Minneapolis was found desirable, the recommendations were probably more easily formulated and agreed on. Both commissions, after their separate canvass of the situation and after alteration of preconceived ideas of members of the commission, meet on the same ground. They assert their belief that the only way out of this noxious evil is to enforce strict legislative measures, which look forward to suppression of prostitution and its attendant horrors. The opening paragraph of the Chicago report strikes the keynote:—"Constant and persistent repression of prostitution the immediate method: absolute annihilation the ultimate ideal." The phrasing of the Minneapolis statement is, "We believe, however, that the main position, enforcement of law against public prostitution, is unassailable."

Both commissions urge most strongly the appointment of a "morals commission." This unique body it is proposed shall have investigatory powers and shall act in an advisory form in conjunction with the civic authorities. It is a body to consider the problem from the standpoint of public welfare rather than from the standpoint of officialdom. The proposed ordinance for the creation of such a commission is to be found in the Chicago report, but is too long to be included here. In one section of this proposed ordinance it is stated that the duty of said commission shall be to take all legal and necessary steps towards suppression of the social evil; to collect evidence and to institute and carry on prosecutions in the city of Chicago. The Minneapolis report does not go so far in recommending duties for the permanent commission, but insists on its value for the carrying out of the policies outlined by the vice commission. Over and beyond this the Chicago report makes a second main recommendation, namely, the establishment of a "morals court" in which cases pertaining in any way to the problem of prostitution can be tried and handled as a specialty.

The much vexed question of just what should be recommended in the way of sex education is handled quite differently in the two reports, the Minneapolis commission going much more boldly and specifically into the question, and daring authoritatively to state many things which the Chicago commission, although it long considered the problem, was evidently careful not to do.

One of the more striking features of the work of the Chicago commission has been the intimate study of the connection between the money making instinct and the exploitation of girls in sex vice. It is not the so-called white slave traffic, but the various other connections with graft that have been found so powerfully connected with prostitution. The backing which the social evil as an institution receives in various ways can only be understood by some such figures as those given us by the Chicago commission. They make a most conservative estimate that the profits from the social evil, engaged in as a business, are in Chicago over $15,000,000 a year. We must refer the reader for the items to the report itself.

One of the best sections is on the sources of supply, again a purely sociological inquiry. Pandering, and the cadet system, dance halls, saloons, work in department stores, wages, amusement parks, excursion steamers, immigration, are all discussed in some detail. The question of sex perversion was investigated and was reported on in a most nonsensational way, yet the findings are specifically enough stated so that their importance can not be minimized.

The Chicago commission gleaned from its extensive investigation many ideas with regard to what might be done to better the situation in certain quarters and in specific ways. Over and beyond the general recommendations, it undertakes to go into details on these points and produces some ten pages of short recommendations to State and city authorities, to other organizations, and even to parents.

Of course, the whole subject of venereal disease, its relation to public health, and to city health departments and to hospitals was thoroughly considered, as it has been by many other authorities, particularly abroad. The recommendations on this point offer nothing in the way of marked innovation. The importance of the subject is not neglected, but such moot points as notification to health departments of venereal disease have not been passed upon.

These two reports have admirably avoided anything like sensationalism. It would undoubtedly have been easier to have given flagrant instances of departure from the moral law than to have been self-contained and to carefully generalize on the whole problem. In the light of this, as well as of the character of the men who have produced these conscientious reports, appears most significant the fact that a good many hundred copies of the Chicago report were held for a time in the Chicago post office before being forwarded to the universities and normal schools to which this particular lot was addressed. Several thousand copies of the report had previously been handled by the post office and many wondered just what influence intervened at this point, when the local press has been so insisting on the value of the commission findings in working out better local conditions. As a matter of fact, the report of the immigration bureau on the white slave traffic was as much or even more outspoken than the document of the Chicago commission, and yet it was distributed by the government itself. That such valuable, scientific, and humanitarian literature can be even momentarily considered in the same category with obscene literature is a strange phenomenon for the American people to witness and one which may well be made an issue.

William Healy.

Chicago.

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Philadelphia's Bureau of Health.—The eighth report of the director of public health and charities of Philadelphia, for the year 1910, gives an account of the special efforts to reduce infant mortality during the summer months, made in co-operation with the bureau of municipal research and a number of other private associations. Reference is also made to the study by the bureau of municipal research looking to improvements in the milk division, the division of medical inspection and the methods of book-keeping in the hospital for contagious diseases.

New York Water Terminals.[1]—The question of freight handling facilities along the west side water-front of Manhattan island has long been discussed by civic associations and city officials, and fought out in the legislature and the courts; but only within the last year has any real approach been made to a reasonably permanent and satisfactory solution.

At the present time, and for years past, only one railroad, the New York Central, has been able to extend its freight tracks directly on to Manhattan island. These tracks run from Spuyten Duyvil to Canal Street—most of this distance along the west side waterfront at grade—with freight yards at various points. The seven other railroads entering the west side of the city have their main freight terminals in Jersey City and Hoboken, and bring their freight cars across the river on carfloats. This necessitates the occupancy by these companies of 28½ out of 72 piers of all sizes on the highly congested portion of the waterfront below 30th Street.

The methods of handling freight at these railroad freight piers are clumsy and antiquated, and cause great traffic congestion along West Street and the marginal way at certain hours of the day. Moreover, the operation of the New York Central freight tracks at grade through the city streets—especially on Eleventh Avenue between 40th and 60th Streets—has not only been a public nuisance, but has resulted in frequent loss of life.

To describe the various attempts which have been made to deal with this situation for some years past would be impossible within the limits of this review.[2] In June, 1910, the problem was first definitely considered by the present board of estimate and apportionment, and a sub-committee was appointed to investigate and report. This sub-committee appointed E. P. Goodrich, E. C. Moore and H. P. Nichols a committee of engineers to report on the engineering features of the problem. In December, 1910, Mr. Moore submitted a minority report embodying a proposal essentially similar to that which had been put forward in a series of reports by the dock commissioner, Calvin Tomkins. In March, 1911, the other two members of the committee of engineers submitted their majority report proposing a radically different solution. Three members of the subcommittee of the board of estimate and apportionment approved this majority report, and recommended to the board its adoption. The remaining member of the sub-committee, Mr. Tomkins, approved Mr. Moore's minority report.

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[1] Report on Transportation Conditions at the Port of New York. Calvin Tomkins, Commissioner of Docks of New York City, July, 1910.

Supplementary Report on Manhattan Terminals at the Port of New York. Calvin Tomkins, Commissioner of Docks of New York City, November 21, 1910,

Report Accompanying Submission of Plans for an Elevated Freight Railroad Connecting Manhattan Terminals at the Port of New York. Calvin Tomkins, Commissioner of Docks of New York City, January 26, 1911.

Report on the Organization of the South Brooklyn Waterfront, between Brooklyn Bridge and Bay Ridge at the Port of New York. Calvin Tomkins, Commissioner of Docks of New York City, March 27, 1911.

Report upon the Elimination of Surface Freight Railroad Tracks of the New York Central and Hudson River Railroad and a General Scheme of Improved Freight Handling Facilities at the Port of New York. E. P. Goodrich, C.E. and Harry P. Nichols, M.E., March, 1911.

Report on the Removal of the New York Central Railroad Tracks from the Surface of Eleventh Avenue and the Improvement of the New York Central Railroad Tracks between West 60th Street and Spuyten Duyvil; also the relation of these improvements to the general question of freight handling on the West Side. Ernest C. Moore. December, 1910.

Report of the Sub-committee of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment of New York City Appointed to Consider and Report upon an Engineering Plan for the Elimination of the Surface Tracks of the New York Central Railroad on the West Side of Manhattan. March 27, 1911. (Printed in the City Record for April 6, 1911.)

Report on the Plans of the New York Central and Hudson River Railroad Company referred to the Dock Commissioner by the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, under date of September 28, 1911, and Their Relation to a General System of Freight Terminals. Calvin Tomkins, Commissioner of Docks of New York City, November 2, 1911.

[2] Those interested in the subject will find a good summary of them in two briefs published by the Citizens Union in June, 1909, and April, 1910, respectively.

Briefly, the two plans are as follows: The minority plan provides for an elevated freight railway along the marginal way from 60th Street down to Fulton Street. At various points along this freight viaduct, to the east of West Street, it is proposed to place terminal buildings for the eventual joint use of all the railroad companies. The use of such joint inland terminal buildings would relieve the waterfront and throw open 28½ piers for the use of the steamship companies which badly need this extra space. It would also make it possible for freight received from, or destined for, a number of different railroads to be called for by the shipper at, or sent to, a single point. Under this plan all these joint terminal buildings would be connected, by means of the freight viaduct, with a single joint water terminal between 30th and 40th Streets, to which railroad freight cars would be brought on floats from the Jersey side.

The majority plan agrees with that of the minority report in providing for joint inland terminal buildings. It proposes, however, to connect each of these buildings directly with a double-decked pier, by means of a trestle bridge across West Street. Each such installation, consisting of a pier, trestle and terminal building, is designated a "unit terminal." This plan also gives the New York Central a subway down 11th Avenue from its 60th Street to its 30th Street yard.

Most of the civic organizations in the city, including the chamber of commerce, the Merchants Association and the Citizens Union, have favored the plan of the dock commissioner, which is substantially the same as that proposed in the minority report. The City Club favors this plan with certain modifications.

The board of estimate and apportionment has as yet adopted neither of these two plans. The legislature, however, passed at its recent session three acts designed to put into effect the plans of the dock commissioner. The first of these measures is an enabling act, empowering the board of estimate and apportionment to adopt plans, acquire property for, and construct an elevated freight terminal railway, a city-owned water terminal above 23d Street equipped with float bridges and connected with the freight railway by surface tracks and ramps, and terminal buildings, with storehouses and factories for railroads and manufacturers, along the east side of the freight railway. The second of these acts permits the incorporation of freight terminal companies—the purpose being that all the railroads entering the west side of the city shall eventually combine and, through the agency of such a terminal company or companies, operate the terminal buildings in common and in common lease from the city trackage rights over the elevated freight railway. The third act authorizes the city to come to terms with the New York Central Railroad Company in regard to the removal of its surface freight tracks from the streets on the west side of Manhattan. This last measure has been severely criticised, among other things because of its failure to provide any means by which the city, in case of a disagreement, can compel the railroad company to cease operation at grade and accept a fair settlement.

Under the provisions of this act the New York Central Railroad Company has submitted tentative plans for a settlement of the problem, but as yet no action with regard to them has been taken by the board of estimate and apportionment.

They have been referred to the dock commissioner, and the latter has submitted a report criticising them in certain respects and recommending action along the lines which he has always urged.

Since all three of the acts above described are merely permissive, the final solution of this long-vexed question—except for possible litigation by the

State to test the validity of the New York Central's franchises—rests entirely in the hands of the city authorities.

ARTHUR CROSBY LUDINGTON.
New York.

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Report of the Milwaukee Sewage Commission, 1911.—The report of the commission appointed September 2, 1909 to make a comprehensive study of sewage disposal in Milwaukee, with due regard to the future extension and growth of the city, was received in April, 1911.

It is a compendious bound document of nearly 600 typewritten pages, recommending ultimate improvements and extensions aggregating in estimated cost $25,000,000 or more, in four general divisions, as follows: works recommended for completion prior to 1915—$4,997,000; recommended for completion by 1920, $7,210,000 or $9,076,000, depending upon whether or not percolating sewage filters are included; recommended for completion prior to 1950, $13,255,000.

The commission was composed of John W. Alvord of Chicago, George C. Whipple of New York City, and Harrison P. Eddy of Boston. The report includes recommendations designed to overcome infection of the city water supply in accordance with a later resolution of the common council. The work was undertaken in November, 1909, and has cost the city about $5000.

In its letter of transmissal the commission states that the problem was found to be one of unusual difficulty owing to adverse conditions imposed by the topography of the district, the complexity introduced by considerations of water supply, and the large growth of population which it was deemed advisable to anticipate.

The report has not yet been adopted either in whole or in part for the reason that the size of the project has rather staggered the authorities. However the city engineer's department has been making a careful study of it, and is about ready to submit to the common council a digest thereof with recommendations which will doubtless lead to some immediate action.

The report of the commission on present conditions is briefly as follows: all city sewers discharge either directly, or indirectly through intercepting sewers, into the three rivers which flow through the city from three different directions and join in one outlet into the lake which eventually receives the sewage; the city water supply is taken from the lake at a point about 3½ miles northeast of the river mouth, and is not filtered; it has been found advisable to disinfect the supply with hypochlorite at certain times in the recent past, but the city has not yet seriously suffered from an infected water supply; two of the rivers are flushed with water pumped into them from the lake, which assists materially in carrying out the sewage and has greatly improved their condition; the third is so seriously polluted that it has become a source of much annoyance and complaint—in fact it was the condition of the Menomonee River that was the immediate cause of the investigation ordered.

The findings of the commission may be epitomized as follows: that the waters of the bay are polluted by the sewage and that the purity of the water supply is threatened thereby; that the flushing of the Menomonee River will afford only temporary relief and will add to the contamination of the bay and the danger to the water supply; that the limits of flushing as a means of preventing offensive conditions are apparent in the two other rivers; and that therefore, while desirable to continue the flushing and to include the Menomonee River in the system, measures should be adopted looking to the collection and artificial purification of the sewage and its discharge well out into the lake at a point as remote as possible from the waterworks intake; that while it is possible at reasonable cost to remove the grosser impurities of sewage, the expense and difficulty rapidly increase as a greater degree of purification is sought, and that even if bacteriological contamination by the effluent from the sewage works could be prevented, there would always be a certain amount of raw sewage which in times of storm would reach the lake and endanger the water supply; so that, since topographical conditions necessitate the ultimate discharge of all such waste into the lake, the most efficient and economical policy would seem to include a no more expensive method of sewage purification than is necessary to prevent undue contamination of the rivers and bay, on the one hand, and a thorough filtration of the water supply, with disinfection when necessary, on the other; and finally that the works for carrying out these measures can be introduced progressively, in an order to remedy first the most dangerous and troublesome conditions, and that the expenditures can be distributed so as not to prove an unreasonable burden to the city's resources.

The commission accordingly recommends for immediate construction a filter plant at an estimated cost of $1,500,000; flushing works for the Menomonee River to cost $1,162,000 and to be completed by 1915; suitable sedimentation tanks and clarification accessories, in short disinfection works, to be established at a low point (designated) in the intercepting sewer system, where all such sewers, old and recommended, as part of a comprehensive system, may be made to converge, and that the effluent be temporarily discharged through the river on which said works are to be located, pending the construction of an outfall sewer to the lake—estimated cost of works, of a size to serve fifteen years, $757,000, to be completed by 1915; estimated cost of outfall sewer with subaqueous outlet one mile from shore, $2,213,000 to be completed by 1920; and that when necessary, works for more thorough purification of the sewage, consisting of percolating filters and accessories, be constructed on the lake shore of a capacity to serve until 1930 at an estimated cost of $1,866,000.

In conclusion the commission asserts its confidence that the works recommended are necessary and sufficient to protect the water supply, eliminate offensive conditions in the rivers, and satisfactorily dispose of the sewage.

Joseph McC. Bell.

Milwaukee.

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Milwaukee Bureau of Economy and Efficiency.—It may be fairly stated at this time that the Milwaukee bureau of economy and efficiency, established by municipal authority in June, 1910, has fully justified its existence in increased efficiency and direct savings to the city already effected, and has demonstrated its potential value through the medium of specific recommendations now under consideration.

It is not to be understood, however, that every Milwaukee citizen who asserts some interest in and knowledge of municipal affairs, getting his information to a considerable extent from the daily press, is prepared to endorse the above statement. The press has not, in fact, very cordially endorsed or encouraged the bureau. Its attitude has been somewhat neutral, and while willing to give credit in specific instances, it has not, on the other hand, seen fit to take a definite stand in support of the work.

The cost of the city to date of this bureau, which is conducted under the direction of Professor John R. Commons, and Professor B. M. Rastall, of the University of Wisconsin, has been in round figures about $23,000. Its work is the investigation of departmental accounts and methods, with subsequent reorganization. There is no thought of making the bureau permanent. It is planned, however, that the efficiency work of the bureau shall be continued by one or more of the present city departments, preferably the city comptroller or the city service commission.

The staff is composed of accountants, engineers, a sanitarian and assistants, and the bureau has quarters in the city hall. A group of the country's foremost experts in organization, engineering, accounting, health and sanitation, finance and taxation, and social work gave their consent to act as consulting experts, and no report or recommendation leaves the office until first passed upon by someone or more of these experts.

Seven bulletins have been issued and these will be followed before the end of the year by four more. Four of the seven deal with social problems and the other three with efficiency work. The first bulletin issued was designed to announce the scope and division of the work and the plans and methods which the bureau proposed to pursue, and which have not been essentially altered or modified. The work of the bureau is divided into two parts—the social and the efficiency studies. The social survey is an investigation into the conditions which affect the health and welfare of the city's inhabitants and the results are used as bases for increasing the scope and activities of the several departments when reorganized by the efficiency division of the bureau. Such reorganization is made only after a thorough study of the work performed by the department concerned and its relation to the various other branches of the city's activities. It was made plain in Bulletin No. 1 that while savings in expenditure were always to be striven for, they were at the same time to be considered only as a by-product, and that increased efficiency of operation was the principal object to be obtained.

The second and fifth bulletins had each to do with a municipal activity and in which important and radical changes of organization were suggested, carrying with them economy of expenditure and increased efficiency. These were reports upon the alarm telegraph systems of the city, and the refuse incinerator.

In the former a consolidation, since effected, of the alarm systems in the fire and police departments, was recommended. In the latter (a new plant which started operations in June, 1910), recommendations showing possible savings and revenues aggregating $63,827, were made, including the installation of steam turbines or engines with electric generators to utilize the most important product of the plant, viz., the steam, which has been going to waste. Utilization of the steam was however one of the chief factors on which the engineers based their selection of the incinerator type.

Acting on the suggestion of the bureau, the city engineer has worked out the main problem of steam utilization and a full and complete use of the products of the incinerator plant is now likely. Appropriations have been made for the erection of a generating set and the electricity will be used to operate the pumps of the sewage flushing stations.

The third, fourth, sixth and seventh bulletins were all social in their nature, being concerned with "Garnishment of Wages," "Women's Wages," "Citizens' Free Employment Bureau," and "Free Legal Aid." Other bulletins that will probably be issued during 1912 are the following: "Water Waste Survey," "Consolidation of the Divisions of Plumbing and House Drain Inspection," "Reorganization of the City Engineer's Office," and "Electrolysis of Water Pipes in Milwaukee."

Joseph McC. Bell.

Milwaukee.

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New York's Chief Engineer.—The report of the chief engineer of the board of estimate and apportionment of the city of New York for 1910 contains a discussion of city planning and the policy of excess condemnation in connection with street improvements. A summary table shows that during the nine years from 1902 to 1910 inclusive public improvements estimated to cost over $53,000,000 have been authorized in the city of New York.

The Chicago Telephone and Gas Reports.[1]—The telephone ordinance passed by the city council in 1907, authorized the readjustment of rates at the end of two and one-half years, and gave the city comptroller power to prescribe forms of accounts. Early in 1910 the comptroller presented to the council committee a report prepared by Arthur Young and Company, accountants, and Jackson Brothers, engineers. This report showed a net loss to the Chicago Telephone Company in operation and indicated that an increase of rates to the amount of $900,000 a year was necessary in order to cover operating expenses, including depreciation, and a return of 8 per cent. Upon analysis of this report by the committee it was decided to supplement it by an additional investigation, and this was undertaken by W. J. Hagenah, chief accountant of the Wisconsin utilities commission. Mr. Hagenah's report (December, 1910) allowing a depreciation of 5½ per cent, and a return of 8 per cent, permitted a reduction in rates of about $200,000. He was instructed to bring in a revised schedule of rates showing how reductions might be made. Before action was taken on this, however, a change was made in the administration and another examination is now being made by Professor E. W. Bemis. This will probably be completed early in 1912.

The rate for gas in Chicago was fixed at 85 cents per 1000 feet, by the ordinance of 1905, for a period of five years. W. J. Hagenah was employed by the council committee to investigate and report upon the question of a reasonable rate for the next period of five years. His report was not submitted to the sub-committee, but was made to the full committee on the day of Mayor Harrison's inauguration, and contained many items never discussed in the sub-committee. Mr. Hagenah recommended a rate of 77 cents. The surprising feature of his report was the allowance of $9,425,932 of going value, to which was added also $2,259,566 as discount on securities. Mayor Harrison, who had pledged himself in advance of the investigation to 70 cent gas, ordered a new inquiry by Professor E. W. Bemis. Mr. Hagenah declined to turn over his data to Professor Bemis and access to the books of the company was refused. Bemis' acute analysis of the situation eliminated the items of "going value" and "discount on securities." He also reduced the rate of return from 7 per cent to 6 per cent. On this basis he recommended a scale of 75 cents for the first year, 70 cents for the next three years, and 65 cents for the fifth year. The council passed an ordinance fixing a scale of 75 cents for the first year, 70 for the next two years and 68 cents for the next two years. On application to Judge Gibbons, of the State circuit court, the city was temporarily enjoined from enforcing this rate and in the meantime a rate of 80 cents was fixed by the court. The city then carried the case before Judge Scanlan who assumed jurisdiction. The gas company then obtained a temporary injunction from Judge Kohlsaat of the U. S. Circuit Court on the ground that they were threatened with confiscation of their property.

Charles E. Merriam.

University of Chicago.

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[1] Report on the Cost of Telephone Service by the Chicago Telephone Company, for the year ending March 31, 1910, under Ordinance of November 6, 1907, by D. C. and Wm. B. Jackson, engineers, and Arthur Young and Company, certified public accountants.

Report of the Telephone Sub-Committee to the Committee on Gas, Oil and Electric Light on the Investigation of the Chicago Telephone Company, December, 1910.

Report on the Investigation of the Chicago Telephone Company submitted to the Committee on Gas, Oil and Electric Light, by Wm. J. Hagenah, May 2, 1911.

Investigation of the People's Gas Light and Coke Company for the Chicago Council Committee on Gas, Oil and Electric Light, by Wm. J. Hagenah, April 17, 1911.

Report upon the price of gas in Chicago, for the Chicago Council Committee on Gas, Oil and Electric Light, by Edward W. Bemis, July 1, 1911.

Municipal Debts in Massachusetts.—Bulletins number 3 and number 4, 1911, of the Massachusetts bureau of statistics respectively relate to "The Issue and Certification of Town Notes" and "Outstanding Indebtedness of Certain Cities and Towns of Massachusetts," etc.

From 1869 to 1906 the bureau of statistics of labor was a statistical office. In 1906 the organization and management of free employment bureaus in certain cities was added to its duties by the legislature. That sapient body in 1909 changed the name of the office to bureau of statistics, and in 1910 made it the duty: (1) of all town treasurers to forward every town note to the director of the bureau to be recorded and certified by him; and (2) of the director of the bureau to *audit* the accounts of any municipality petitioning to have it done and to *prescribe and oversee* the installation of a uniform system of accounts for such cities and towns.

Bulletin number 3 is simply an official circular of instructions, with prescribed forms, to enable town officials to secure legal certification of their town notes.

Bulletin number 4 is a report to the Massachusetts Senate, in pursuance of its order, calling for information as to compliance with the statute (Rev. Laws, ch. 27–28.) which requires municipalities to establish sinking funds for all debts running beyond ten years, or to raise annually, by taxation, not less than 8 per cent of the principal of debts running less than ten years. The report covers all thirty-three cities and 156 of the 321 towns of the State.

Summarily stated, the report shows that 82 municipalities, viz., 15 cities and 67 towns, in 1909 had debts outstanding amounting to $1,120,435, ($621,799 for the cities and $498,636 for the towns), towards whose liquidation neither sinking funds nor annual payments from taxes had been provided. These outstanding unprovided-for debts are shown to consist of:

(1) Loans from individuals or banks chiefly on demand notes........	$269,694
(2) Trust funds, the principal being borrowed or used.................	460,172
(3) Cemetery funds, for the perpetual care of lots..	390,569
Total	$1,120,435

Half of the report is taken up with detailed statements, showing when the money was borrowed, amount borrowed, rate of interest, and aggregate interest payments to 1909. Several of the larger cities are found in the list, e.g., Fall River, the third city of the State as regards population, with $127,352 outstanding; Lowell, fourth city, with $36,000 on which $77,880 had been paid in interest; Cambridge, fifth city, with $25,000, outstanding on which $71,000 had been paid in interest at 6 per cent for from forty-five to fifty-one years. New Bedford, the sixth city of the State, besides using up its Cemetery funds of $26,735 had used $117,100 of trust funds for current expenses, paying interest thereon from twenty-two to thirty-nine years to the amount of $263,634. One town paid 6 per cent interest for 62 years, on $1000, or $3720 in all. Many are small towns, but 12 had more than 5000 inhabitants, and 4 had over 12,000 in 1910.

Some of the delinquent municipalities have begun to secure legislative authority to replenish their trust funds. Salem secured the first of such acts in 1903; and five similar acts were passed by the legislature in 1911.

Edward M. Hartwell.

Boston.

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Water Front Lands in Illinois.[1]—By resolution of the forty-sixth General Assembly of Illinois, a joint committee of both houses of the legislature was established to investigate the rights of the State of Illinois in land lying in and upon the navigable waters of the State. The report of this committee, presented to the forty-seventh General Assembly at its regular session, gives the results of a comprehensive examination, extending over two years, in three volumes comprising about 600 pages.

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[1] Report of the Submerged and Shore Lands Investigating Committee, to the Governor and the Forty-seventh General Assembly of Illinois, 1911

Much the larger part of the printed document consists of the detailed report of E. H. Heilbron, consulting engineer. This covers the principal lakes and rivers, notably the Lake Michigan coast, the Chicago, Calumet, Illinois, Mississippi, Ohio and Wabash Rivers. Especial attention was given to the water front of Chicago and East St. Louis, where the most reprehensible encroachments on public waters were disclosed. Mr. Heilbron's report, in addition to full accounts of the detailed surveys and other work accomplished, presents comprehensive descriptions of the shores of the several rivers and lakes, with numerous maps and illustrations.

The report of the committee summarizes briefly the methods and results of the investigation, calling attention to the extensive encroachments on public waters by private individuals and corporations, and urging vigorous action to regain the rights of the State and to prevent further aggression. The committee recommends the creation of a rivers and lakes commission, to continue the investigation, to prosecute suits against those who have encroached on the public property, to reserve lands for public purposes and to devise plans for the development of waste lands.

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New York Summary of Financial Administration.—Comptroller Prendergast of New York City has instituted an admirable policy of issuing a summary of the financial administration of the city in such a form and setting forth the salient facts in such a way that they are readily ascertained and understood.

The report presents at the outset a statement of the net cash receipts and payments during the year, giving a complete picture of the municipal income and outgo so displayed that the amount and general character of the receipts and expenditures are clearly shown. Then follows statements co-ordinating with the general statement but developing and amplifying it into such component parts as is necessary to bring the meaning and significance of the accounts, representing transactions equal in amount to those of fifteen next largest cities in the United States, within ready comprehension. All departments, bureaus and divisions whose functions and purpose are closely allied have been brought together into groups, thus giving a clear and comprehensible statement of the total amounts expended under each broad administrative function. These are further divided according to the amounts paid from budget appropriations and from the proceeds of long term bonds, assessment bonds and other special revenues. The summary shows an aggregate expenditure of $451,904,000, and receipts amounting to $452,000,000; the total funded debt, as $946,000,000; and the interesting conclusion that by means of short term bonds the city was financed during 1910 at an interest saving, as compared with 1909, of upwards of $1,000,000.

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The Minnesota Legislature.—Lynn Haines of Minneapolis, who published an account of the Minnesota legislature of 1909, has issued a similar study of the Minnesota legislature of 1911. His point of view is set forth in the final chapter, where the author states that he has "deliberately aimed to suggest the unwholesome phases of the session—the things about which the people should have information. There were many beneficent influences and results. These have not been emphasized because they are normal. The public has a right to expect that legislators shall labor for the general good. It is only when they take the opposite course, and serve the purposes of special privilege and political plunder, that the voters should know in order that there may be reproof and change."

Further indication of the contents may be gathered from the chapter titles, among which may be noted the following: "About the Plunderbund," "How the House was Organized," "The Speakership Contest," "The Fight for Direct Legislation," "Liquor Legislation," "Woman Suffrage" and "A Characterization of Members."

It is clear from the author's own statements that the work is not a scientific analysis of the legislative session; and it may be urged that the people should be told of the progress that has been made as well as the obstacles in the way. At the same time the caustic criticism of special interests and reactionary politicians will serve a useful purpose in arousing public opinion and aiding in the improvement of political conditions and methods.

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Reports on City Planning.—Proceedings of the Third National Conference on City Planning, Philadelphia, Pa., May 15–17, 1911. Flavel Shurtleff, secretary, 19 Congress Street, Boston.

Pittsburgh. Main Thoroughfares and Down Town District. Improvements necessary to meet the city's present and future needs. A report by F. L. Olmstead, 169 pages. Prepared under the direction of the Commission on City Planning, adopted by the Pittsburgh Civic Commission, December, 1910, 324 Fourth Avenue. Published February, 1911.

New Haven. Report of the Civic Improvement Commission. Cass Gilbert, architect; F. L. Olmstead landscape architect. 138 pages. To the New Haven Civic Improvement Commission, New Haven, 1910.

A City Plan for Rochester. A Report prepared for the Rochester Civic Improvement Commission by A. W. Brunner architect, F. L. Olmstead, landscape architect. B. J. Arnold, traction export in consultation, 1911, 39 pages.

Madison: A Model City, by John Nolen, Boston, Massachusetts, 1911.

General Features of a Park System for Chattanooga, Tenn. Report to the Board of Park Commissioners, by John Nolen, Boston, 1911.

The Making of a Park System in La Crosse. Report by John Nolen, 1911. La Croosse, Wis.

Report of the Board of Park Commissioners, Kansas City, Mo., for the fiscal year ending April 17, 1911.

Report of the Municipal Art Commission for the city of Los Angeles, Cal. Los Angeles, 1909.

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Reports on Commission Government.—In addition to the general discussion of the movement for commission government in cities, there are appearing a good number of local reports and other special publications dealing with particular cities. The commissioners of Spokane have issued a pamphlet containing the new city charter, a brief sketch of the movement for its adoption and a short account of the history and advantages of the city. A special committee of the Denver chamber of commerce appointed to consider and report on the commission form of government has submitted two reports, each signed by one-half of the committee, one in favor of and one against the commission plan. A discussion of the Grand Junction plan of city government by James W. Bucklin, chairman of the charter convention, has been published in pamphlet form.

The third annual report of the city of Des Moines, for the year ending March 31, 1911, contains, in addition to detailed statistics, a historical sketch of the city, the text of the Iowa commission government law and the ordinances passed in Des Moines organizing the city departments.

Many of the commission governed cities are issuing regular reports at monthly or shorter intervals, showing the proceedings of the commissions and the financial condition of the cities.

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Commission on Defective Children.—St. Louis' commission on delinquent, dependent and defective children submitted its report on March 4, 1911. This is based on a study of local institutions and on examinations of numerous other institutions and methods in various parts of the country. The report includes the results of detailed investigations of the St. Louis Industrial School made by the department of research of the St. Louis School of Social Economy and by the social service committee of the Civic League of St. Louis. The municipal commission recommended (1) the entire separation of dependent and delinquent children; (2) the placing out of all dependent children in family homes; and (3) the sale of the present Industrial School plant and its relocation in the country on the cottage plan, to care for delinquent children only. The enabling legislation recommended was passed by the Missouri legislature; and in September the commission presented a brief supplemental report submitting a proposed ordinance establishing a board of children's guardians.

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"The City Healthful"[1]—The City Healthful is the title of an attractive and informing volume issued by charities publication committee of New York. Although the volume contains the proceedings of the first annual conference of the mayors of the cities of New York State, held in Schenectady, it is a good deal more than a mere report of the proceedings, as care was taken to have all the speeches relate to one subject, and were very carefully correlated. Among the questions considered are: The moral responsibility of a community for the protection of health and life, municipal duties in the conquest of tuberculosis, methods of determining economic losses from preventable diseases, how to get competent health officers.

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Fire Hazards.—A committee of the Boston chamber of commerce on fire prevention, appointed in August, 1910, submitted its report in September, 1911, in relation to fire hazards and losses with recommendations as to the best method to follow in improving conditions. Appendices present statistics of fire losses in the United States and Europe, an extract from the report of the Illinois fire insurance commission on the profits of insurance companies, comparisons of the cost of construction of houses of different materials and drafts of proposed legislation. The committee recommends further regulation of building construction, the creation of a fire bureau to investigate the causes of fires, and the installation of a high pressure water service in the congested portions of the city and of self-propelled fire apparatus.

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Weights and Measures Situation.—Report number 1 of the Philadelphia bureau of municipal research (March 3, 1911) sets forth the results of the lack of a system of official inspection and regulation, together with a digest of existing laws and ordinances on the subject and a suggested legislative program.

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Cincinnati Bureau of Municipal Research.—The second annual report summarizes its work for the year ending June 30, 1911, under such headings as paving specifications, street lighting contract, the budget, deposit of city funds and the health and park departments.

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[1] New York, Charities Publication Committee, 1911. $1.00.

Cleveland's Golden Rule Policy.—In his annual report for the year 1910, Chief of Police Kohler of Cleveland, Ohio, discusses the results of the three years in which the so-called "Golden Rule" policy has been followed in making arrests. The average number of arrests for these years shows a decrease of 74 per cent when compared with the number for 1907. At the same time the number of arrests for felonies has been slightly increased, while vice and crime are said to have greatly decreased. Chief Kohler urges that his policy has been eminently successful.

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Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy.—The annual announcement for 1911–12 serves to illustrate the systematic training now offered in the field of social service. The list of regular instructors and special lectures include a large number of prominent names, both of those active in social work and in university teaching, not only in Chicago but in other parts of the country.

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Physical Characteristics of European Seaports.—A report on this subject by Charles W. Staniford, chief engineer of the department of docks and ferries of New York City, has been submitted to Mayor Gaynor by the commissioner of docks.

New York's Tenements.—In the fifth report of the Tenement House Department of the City of New York, for the year 1909, will be found interesting discussions on the development of upper Manhattan, the three-story three family tenement vs. the two family dwelling, the tenement house census of 1909 and deaths in tenement house fires.

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Municipal Street Cleaning.—Part I of the annual report of the Rhode Island bureau of industrial statistics, prepared by the bureau of social research, is a survey of the street cleaning problem in the city of Providence, and recommends important changes in the methods now employed in that city.

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Hartford's Engineer.—In the fourth annual report of the department of engineering to the court of common council, Hartford, Conn., is an account of bituminous road construction in Massachusetts, Rhode Island, New York and New Jersey.

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City Club of New York.—The New York City Club has reprinted in leaflet form an editorial from the *Engineering News* of January 12, 1911, on water waste and the general inefficiency of the water department of New York City.

CURRENT MUNICIPAL LEGISLATION

Edited by Arthur Crosby Ludington

PART I—REVIEW OF CERTAIN FEATURES OF STATE LEGISLATION FOR 1911 AFFECTING MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT.[1]

Alabama.—The most important measures dealing with municipal government were a series of acts providing for the commission form of government in cities of various classes. The first of these acts[2] relates to cities of 100,000 or over, and applies at the present time, therefore, only to the city of Birmingham. The first board of commissioners under this act is to consist of the present mayor of the city and of two other commissioners appointed by the governor. At the expiration of their terms their successors are to be nominated by petition and elected by the voters. If no candidate secures a majority of the votes cast at this election a second election is to be held within one week. Thenceforward the term of office of each commissioner is to be three years, one commissioner being chosen each year. The act makes no provision for the initiative or referendum, but the commissioners are to be subject to a recall election on petition of 3000 qualified voters. The governor is authorized at any time to have all the books and accounts of the city examined by the state examiner of public accounts, the cost to be paid by the city. No provision is made for the submission of this act to the voters of the city.

Another act[3] provides for the commission form of government in cities of from 25,000 to 50,000 inhabitants. It applies at present only to the city of Montgomery. It is similar, in general, to the Birmingham act, but provides for five commissioners instead of three. It includes provisions for the recall on a petition of 1000 signatures, and for the referendum on a 25 per cent petition, but there is no provision for the initiative. Like the Birmingham act it took effect without any submission to popular vote.

Still another act[4] provides for the commission form of government in cities of from 1000 to 25,000 inhabitants. This act provides for three commissioners to be appointed at first by the governor and thereafter elected in rotation for three year terms. The recall is provided for on a 25 per cent petition, but there is no provision for the initiative or referendum. If no candidate for a commissionership receives a majority vote at the first election a second election is to be held. This act may be adopted by any city, the population of which falls within the limits above mentioned, by popular vote.[5]

A fourth act[6] provides for the commission form of government in cities which are not provided for in any of the other acts—i.e., cities of from 50,000 to 100,000 inhabitants. It therefore applies at present only to the city of Mobile. It provides for a board of three commissioners, to be elected, one each year, for terms of three years each. Each member of the board is to be the head of a department, and the functions of the various departments are to be distributed by the board itself. The commissioners are to be nominated by petition, and at the general election each voter is to indicate his first and second choice for each position. There is no provision for the initiative, but franchise grants must be submitted to popular vote on petition of one-third of 1 per cent of the inhabitants of the city. The commissioners may be subjected to a recall election on petition of 25 per cent of the voters. This act may be adopted by popular vote by any city, the population of which falls within the limits above mentioned, on petition of 1 per cent of its inhabitants.

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[1] In general the following summaries deal only with statutes, enacted in the various States which had legislative sessions in 1911, relating to the following topics: charters and charter making; the structure of city government; regulation of public utilities and constitutional amendments affecting city government. In the case of a few States, however, where little municipal legislation of any sort was enacted, the summaries have been made complete. In the case of most of the other States legislation for 1911 on other topics connected with municipal government will be noticed in the April number. Complete reviews of 1911 municipal legislation for Michigan and Tennessee, which it was impossible to secure in time for this number, will also be included at that time—also similar reviews for Indiana, Missouri and Rhode Island where no legislation of any importance on any of the subjects dealt with in this number, but considerable legislation on other features of municipal government, was enacted.

The citations in the footnotes always refer to the 1911 session laws unless it is otherwise stated.

[2] No. 163.

[3] No. 254.

[4] No. 504.

[5] For a list of the cities which have adopted this law see page 000.

[6] No. 330.

Another important act[1] provides for an amendment to the State constitution to be submitted to popular vote in November, 1912, authorizing the legislature to regulate the fees and commissions of all county officers in Jefferson County. The constitution now provides that the county officers in all counties shall receive compensation in the form of fees, and that the fees in all counties shall be uniform. In Jefferson County, including as it does the city of Birmingham, the fees of county officers have grown out of all proportion to those received in other counties. The sheriff and the probate judge, for example, are believed to receive anywhere from $30,000 to $60,000 a year each, and the clerks of two or three of the courts receive from $10,000 to $20,000 per annum, or more than the salaries received by the judges of these courts. There is no method provided by law for giving publicity to these fees or commissions or for ascertaining their amount. The effect of the proposed constitutional amendment will be to give the legislature power to place all the officials of Jefferson County on salaries without disturbing the fee system in the other counties of the State.[2]

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Arkansas.—Perhaps the most important act passed during the 1911 session affecting municipal government in Arkansas was that carrying into effect the provisions of the recent initiative and referendum amendment to the constitution.[3] In so far as it relates specifically to municipal affairs, this act provides that, within ninety days after the passage of any ordinance by any city or town council, 5 per cent of the legal voters of such city or town may, by petition, demand a referendum thereon. Pending such referendum vote the law is to remain inoperative except in cases where the council has declared an emergency. Eight per cent of the legal voters of any city or incorporated town may, also at any time more than four months before a regular election, propose any measure not inconsistent with the general laws or constitution of the State. No ordinance, however, affecting local option as to the sale of liquor is to be passed in this way. An ordinance thus submitted by initiative petition or by referendum is to become law only in case it receives a majority of the votes cast thereon at the election. The act further regulates the form of initiative and referendum petitions, and prescribes who may sign them.

Another act[4] provides that when the inhabitants of any city of the first class, adjoining or contiguous to another smaller municipal corporation, desire to annex such smaller municipality, a petition shall be filed with the city council of the larger municipality, signed by not less than fifty qualified electors of the two municipalities affected. The council receiving the petition may then pass an ordinance in favor of such annexation and one of the petitioners shall then file the said petition in the office of the county clerk of the county and the county court shall at once order a special election to be held in both of said municipalities on the question of annexation, giving thirty days' notice thereof by publication. The existing debts of each municipality, owing prior to consolidation, shall be paid by the consolidated municipality out of funds derived from the municipality owing the debts.[1]

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[1] No. 63.

[2] Other acts relating to municipal government will be dealt with in a future number. The information on which the above summary was based was furnished by George B. Ward, Esq., of Birmingham, a former Mayor of the city.

[3] Extra session, act No. 2, June 30.

[4] Act No. 63, March 3.

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California.—California legislation relating to municipal matters in the year 1911 falls under three heads: (1) constitutional amendments; (2) freeholder charters and charter amendments; and (3) legislative enactments.

1. Of the twenty-two amendments to the State constitution adopted by the voters on October 10 the following pertain, directly or indirectly, to the government of cities.

Senate Amendment No. 20, amending section 8 of Article XI.[2] The Constitution of 1879 opened the way to a city having a population of more than 100,000 inhabitants to frame its own charter. An amendment in 1892 extended this privilege of home rule to cities of more than 3500 inhabitants. This provision has been amended in 1902, 1906, and 1911, always with a view to greater freedom in local government. The main features of the amendment of 1911 are: (1) allowing the electors by a petition of 15 per cent to initiate proceedings to obtain a new charter, instead of leaving the formal beginning of such a movement to the city authorities; (2) giving the freeholders elected to frame a new charter one hundred and twenty days in which to complete their work instead of limiting them to ninety days as heretofore; (3) remedying a defect in the old provision so that amendments to the charter may be submitted at any biennial session of the legislature; (4) allowing new charters or charter amendments to be submitted for ratification at a special session of the legislature; (5) authorizing the people to establish through new charters or charter amendments a borough system of government for the whole or any part of the territory of the city. The only criticism to be passed on this amendment is that it may be found in practice to have set up too rigid a form of procedure to be followed in charter-making and charter-amending.

Amendment No. 48, amending section $8\frac{1}{2}$ of Article XI.[3] Its purpose is to increase and make more effective the powers of cities organized under freeholder charters. It furthers the emancipation of such cities from legislative control in the matters of police commissioners and the police force, the board of education, and municipal elections. For consolidated cities and counties (at present San Francisco) it gives to the local community substantial and very important control over the "county" officers thereof.

Amendment No. 47, amending section 23 of Article XII[4] defines public utilities and empowers the State railroad commission to regulate them and fix their rates for service. It authorizes cities to vest the power they now possess of regulation and rate-making in this State commission. The only criticism on this amendment comes from those who desired that the State commission should be given at once complete and exclusive power over all public utilities whether general or local in their operation.

The purpose of Amendment No. 49, amending section 19 of Article XI[5] is to restore to the cities of California the control of their streets, taken away by the Constitution of 1879. Under the old provision any person or corporation supplying water or light might tear up the streets at any time without the city's consent. The object then in view was to encourage competition, but the result has been to impair or destroy city pavements and to allow corporations to acquire valuable privileges without giving compensation therefor. The new amendment authorizes cities to engage in supplying light, water, power, heat, transportation, telephone service or other means of communication, or to grant any kind of franchise to persons or corporations to perform such services under limitations provided in their charters.

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[1] Certain measures dealing with other features of municipal government will be noticed in a future number. This information was supplied by Hon. Wm. A. Falconer.

[2] P. 2175

[3] P. 2166.

[4] P. 2164.

[5] P. 2180.

Amendment No. 25, amending section 13 of Article XX.[1] The old provision established a plurality of votes as constituting a choice in any election. The new provision authorizes cities and counties, under freeholder charters, to regulate the election of local officers to suit themselves and to prescribe a higher proportion of votes to decide an election. This amendment ratifies and places beyond constitutional question, the election provisions of the Berkeley charter of 1909, which have been likewise adopted in San Francisco, Los Angeles, and many other cities.

Amendment No. 5, adding a new section, 7½ to Article XI[2] is novel in character and is one of the most important. Its object is to give home rule to counties. It authorizes the electors of any county to elect a board of fifteen freeholders to frame a charter for such county, in much the same manner as cities are now authorized to frame and adopt charters. The only criticism to be passed on the amendment is that home rule is granted with too grudging a hand, and that the procedure for securing a county charter is set forth in too detailed a manner.

2. Freeholder charters and charter amendments. Ten cities have adopted new charters during the year 1911, nine of these following the commission scheme of government. The only one to adhere to the traditional type of charter is the city of Petaluma.[3] The other nine follow the Berkeley model, which is an adaptation, with some new features, of the Des Moines plan to California home-rule conditions. Modesto,[4] Monterey,[5] Oakland,[6] San Luis Obispo,[7] Santa Cruz[8] and Stockton[9] provide for a mayor and four commissioners; Vallejo[10] for a mayor and two commissioners; Sacramento[11] for five commissioners, they to choose from their number a president to exercise mayoral functions; Modesto, Santa Cruz, Vallejo, Sacramento and Stockton adopt the Berkeley election plan without change. This plan provides for the nomination of candidates by petition of a small number of electors; for a ballot without party indications; and for a primary election and a final election, the primary, however, being a final one for any candidate receiving a majority of all votes cast for the office for which he is running. Oakland has the same system, but requires two elections in all cases. Monterey and San Luis Obispo adopt the Berkeley nomination and ballot scheme, but have only one election, and consequently choice by plurality instead of by majority. Santa Cruz provides for an elective auditing committee of three. Sacramento makes its board of commissioners a board of education. Pomona[12] has ostensibly adopted a commission charter, but with many variations. It has, among its elective officers, not only a mayor and four commissioners, but also a city clerk, who is ex officio auditor, a city attorney, an assessor, who is

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[1] P. 2046.

[2] P. 2168.

[3] P. 1799.

[4] P. 1493.

[5] P. 1742.

[6] P. 1551.

[7] P. 1698.

[8] P. 1861.

[9] Not yet ratified by the legislature.

[10] P. 1958.

[11] Not yet ratified by the legislature.

[12] P. 1913.

ex officio tax collector and treasurer, and a police judge. It recognizes ward representation: It provides for non-partisan nominations, and for two elections, a primary and a final. All the new charters provide for the initiative, referendum and recall.

Eight cities already enjoying home rule amended their charters in 1911. Eureka[1] provided for the recall and Salinas[2] for the referendum. Palo Alto,[3] Sacramento[4] and Santa Barbara[5] adopted amendments covering details, but involving no principles of municipal government. San Diego[6] made more careful regulations governing franchises, and provided that school directors shall receive a compensation of $600 a year. Los Angeles[7] adopted fifteen amendments, which cover 110 pages of the California Statutes for 1911. Some of these were made necessary by the annexation of large areas of territory and the acquirement of a harbor at San Pedro on the Pacific. Most of these amendments are in the nature of revision of details. The only one involving an important principle is that in reference to elections. Los Angeles had in 1909 adopted the Berkeley plan with the qualification that there must always be two elections, a primary and a final, a qualification followed by Oakland in 1911. The Los Angeles amendment of 1911 now takes up the Berkeley provision making the primary election a final one for any candidate who receives a majority of all votes cast for the office for which ity of all votes cast for the office for which he is running. In San Francisco[8] thirty-eight proposals were adopted, amending the charter in many particulars. The more important provisions are in reference to the 1915 Fair bonds, to the initiative, referendum and recall, to street improvements, and to elections. The Berkeley plan of elections is now adopted with but slight modifications of detail.

3. Legislative enactments. The legislature of 1911 provided by general law that cities of the fifth and sixth classes under the municipal corporations act might adopt a commission form of government.[9] Cities of the sixth class have a population of less than 6000; those of the fifth class, a population between 6000 and 20,000. Few cities over 10,000 are governed by the municipal corporations act, but have freeholder charters of their own making, while many cities of less than 10,000 likewise have freeholder charters.

Another act of the legislature extends the operation of the initiative, referendum and recall to all cities organized under the general municipal corporations act.[10] Other acts affecting cities passed by this legislature are a tenement house act,[11] an act regulating public accounting,[12] acts governing the annexation of territory to cities,[13] municipal elections,[14] and bonds for various municipal purposes.[15]

William Carey Jones.

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Colorado.—No important laws relating to cities were passed in 1911. By one act cities and towns were authorized to supply water to consumers outside the corporate limits and to fix the rates and conditions.[16] Another gave the cities power to compel the removal of weeds, brush, rubbish, etc., from within the city limits and to assess the costs on the property affected.[17] The manner of exercising the right of eminent domain was described in great detail in a law applying to all cities.[1] To cities of the first class (those with a population of 15,000 and over), and not under a special charter, additional powers were given in regard to street improvements.[2] A universal registration law was enacted which should prove a step towards the absolute exclusion from voting of that rather large transient or floating element of the population which, as a rule, has so little genuine interest in city affairs and good government, as well as towards the further elimination of repeating and related practices.[3] ARNOLD J. LIEN.

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[1] P. 2036.

[2] P. 1739.

[3] P. 2040.

[4] P. 1790.

[5] P. 1478.

[6] P. 1856.

[7] P. 2051.

[8] P. 1661.

[9] P. 842.

[10] P. 359.

[11] P. 860.

[12] P. 597.

[13] Pp. 827, 1454 and 1459.

[14] Pp. 896.

[15] Pp. 595, 730, 421, 1192.

[16] Ch. 175, p. 522.

[17] Ch. 176, p. 523.

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Connecticut.—Interest in charter legislation was manifest in an effort to pass a general uniform charter law under which all cities having a population of over seven thousand should incorporate, providing for a civil service commission and a board of estimate and taxation. This was referred to the next general assembly. A state-wide measure for the adoption of commission government was rejected, but to the city of Norwich[4] was granted a special charter giving it a commission form of government. The voters of the city, however, failed to ratify the new charter. In the same manner, the question of consolidation of town and city governments met defeat as a general measure. A special act applying to Stamford,[5] passed only to be rejected by the voters at the polls.

The new charter granted to, and adopted by the city of Bristol,[6] provided for direct primaries, initiative, referendum, and recall. A further tendency toward commission form appears in the small administrative body consisting of a mayor and six councilmen. Special enthusiasm was shown for the New London[7] harbor improvements. A million dollars was voted for making the harbor a terminal for ocean liners.

Tenement house legislation was amplified by the enactment of three statutes: first, a general amendment to the tenement[8] law; second,[9] concerning sanitary conditions in tenement lodging, and boarding houses; third, relating to fire escapes.[10]

Among special subjects of local interest, it may be mentioned that five towns have appointed boards of finance;[11] New Haven is to have a special commission on building lines;[12] New London[13] and New Haven[14] have provided for teachers pensions, the latter city extends the law so as to include school janitors and engineers;[15] Waterbury[16] has established a pension fund for the fire department.

A proposed constitutional amendment provides that judges[17] of the city, police, borough and town courts be chosen by the electors of the cities, rather than appointed by the general assembly as at present. GEORGE S. GODARD.

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Delaware.—The legislature passed an act[18] designed to provide a new charter for the city of Wilmington. The governor of the State and the mayor of Wilmington are jointly authorized to appoint a commission consisting of ten members, citizens of Wilmington, to submit a report to the mayor on or before February 1, 1912. The charter thus proposed will be submitted at an election to be held on the first Saturday in June. In case a majority of votes at the election in June are cast in favor of the proposed charter, it is to be presented to the general assembly of 1913 for ratification.

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[1] Ch. 129, p. 373.
[2] Ch. 177, p. 524.
[3] Ch. 127, p. 336.
[4] Special laws, 1911, ch. 245.
[5] Special laws, 1911, ch. 459.
[6] Special laws, 1911, ch. 352.
[7] Special laws, 1911, ch. 357.
Special laws, 1911, ch. 261.
[8] Public laws, 1911, ch. 241.
[9] Public laws, 1911, ch. 220.
[10] Public laws, 1911, ch. 239.
[11] Special laws, 1911, ch. 100, 125, 272, 333, 334.
[12] Special laws, 1911, ch. 433.
[13] Special laws, 1911, ch. 461.
[14] Special laws, 1911, ch. 340.
[15] Special laws, 1911, ch. 366.
[16] Special laws, 1911, ch. 195.
[17] Public laws, 1911, p. 1616.
[18] Ch. 192, March 29.

Another act[1] creates a board of public utilities for the city of Wilmington to consist of five members to be appointed by the mayor, subject to confirmation by the council, one member each from each of the five representative districts within the city. Not more than three of the members are to belong to any one political party, and no person is to be appointed who is employed by, or holds any office in, or is financially interested in any public service corporation operating in the city of Wilmington, or who is engaged in the practice of law. The term of office of the members of the board is five years, one term expiring each year. The board is to have supervision over all "public utilities" including street railway, express, traction, gas, electric light, heat and power, water, telephone and telegraph corporations, associations or joint stock companies operating in the city for public use. It has power, after hearing, upon due notice, by order in writing, to (a) require compliance with the laws of the State, the ordinances of the city, and the terms of any franchise; (b) to require any company to furnish safe and adequate service; (c) to require any company to keep its books, records and documents in such a way as to afford an intelligent understanding of its business; (d) to direct any company granting unfair and unreasonable discriminations to cease doing so; (e) to investigate any accident that may occur in the city; (f) to hear and examine complaints as to rates, and make such recommendations and orders as it may deem proper concerning such rates; (g) to make any recommendations it may see fit to any company and to cause an action to be brought by the attorney-general or by the city solicitor for the violation of any law or ordinance; (h) to compel the attendance of witnesses and the production of books and papers; to swear in witnesses and issue subpoenas; to apply to the superior court or to any judge thereof, in case of a failure to obey a subpoena, for an order to show cause why the person so failing to obey should not be committed for contempt.

No privilege or franchise hereafter granted is to be valid without the approval of the board, which is to determine when such franchise is necessary and proper for the public convenience. Any public utility company may appeal to the board from any municipal ordinance and the board is empowered to hear such appeal, determine the matter and make such order as it may deem just and reasonable.[2]

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Florida.—As in the case of a number of other southern States, practically all Florida legislation affecting municipalities is special legislation. At the recent session a number of special acts were adopted granting new charters to cities and towns, or amending existing charters. Two of these special charters provide for the commission form of government for the towns of Pass-a-Grille[3] and Green Cove Springs.[4] Both provide for a board of three commissioners to be elected at large. The Pass-a-Grille charter authorizes the commissioners to choose a mayor from among their own number, and confers upon him a veto power over ordinances adopted by the board. It provides that the commissioners shall be subject to a recall election on petition of a number of qualified voters equal to 50 per cent of the total vote cast at the last preceding municipal election, but makes no provision for either the initiative or the referendum. The Green Cove Springs charter, on the other hand, provides for both the initiative and referendum on petition of 50 per cent of the qualified voters, and allows a recall election to be held on a 40 per cent petition.

In a new charter granted to the city of Lakeland[5] that city is authorized at any future time to adopt the commission form of government. The city council, by a two-thirds vote, may submit the question at a special election, and the commission form is to be adopted if approved by a majority of the voters.

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[1] Ch. 206, March 29.

[2] Other acts passed at the last session will be dealt with in a future number.

[3] Act No. 266, ch. 6385, June 6.

[4] Act No. 235, ch. 6350.

[5] Act No. 244, ch. 6363, became law without the Governor's approval.

Several other new charters, and amendments to existing charters, provide for the initiative, referendum and recall. In the charters of Miami[1] and West Palm Beach[2] provision is made for the holding of a recall election for any elective city office on petition, in the one case, of 15 per cent, and in the other case of 20 per cent, of the qualified voters. The new charter for the city of Marianna[3] provides for the initiative, referendum and recall, in each case on a 25 per cent petition.

Two other acts give to the towns of Micanopy[4] and Trenton[5] the right to amend their own charter or to adopt new ones. The new charter or amendment, if proposed by a two-thirds vote of the town council and approved by the mayor or passed over his veto, is to be submitted to the voters of the town for their adoption either at a special election or at a general municipal election.

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Georgia.—Perhaps the most important measure affecting municipal government which was passed at the recent session was the proposed new charter for the city of Atlanta.[6] This charter embodied an approach to the commission form of government, but retained several features of the older and more common form. This act was submitted to popular vote in September, 1911, but was defeated by the voters at the polls.

New charters providing for the commission form of government were also passed by the legislature for the cities of Cartersville[7] and Marietta[8] and referred to the voters of these cities at special elections. The former was more or less modelled on the Des Moines plan. It provided for a mayor and two commissioners, the mayor being made head of one department, and the board being given power to assign its other two members to the two remaining departments. The board was also given power to appoint all other city officers, to create or alter city offices and to determine their powers and duties. Provision was made for the initiative, referendum and recall, the referendum on a 10 per cent petition and the initiative and recall on 25 per cent petitions. The Marietta charter also provided for a board of three commissioners, one commissioner to be elected every two years for a six year term. It was similar in other respects to the Cartersville act, but made no provision for the initiative or referendum.

Some thirty-five other cities and towns were given a mayor and council form of government either by new charters or by drastic amendments to existing charters. This form of government, which is common in Georgia, resembles the commission form of government in one respect, in that it provides for comparatively few elective officers. The charter of one of these towns[9] provided for the recall of city officers on a 50 per cent petition.[10]

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Idaho.—By an act[11] approved March 13, Idaho entered the long list of States in which commission government may be adopted by the simple expedient of a referendum vote. The law applies to cities with a population of 3000 and over, and in all cities the commission is to consist of five members, elected for four year terms to expire in such a way as to effect a partial renewal of the council every two years. In all fundamental respects the law follows closely the Iowa type. Elections are to be non-partisan.

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[1] Act No. 253, ch. 6372, became law without the Governor's approval.

[2] Act No. 292, ch. 6411, June 3.

[3] Act No. 252, ch. 6371, May 5.

[4] Act No. 254, ch. 6373, June 6.

[5] Act No. 289, ch. 6408, May 8.

[6] Act No. 310, August 22.

[7] Act No. 176, August 18.

[8] Act No. 293, August 21.

[9] Dallas, Act No. 285, August 21.

[10] The information on which this summary was based was furnished by Ernest C. Kontz, Esq., of Atlanta.

[11] Ch. 82, March 13.

The Berkeley plan of having a second election only when necessary to secure majorities has been followed. Corrupt practices provisions are included, but no mention is made of the merit system. The initiative and referendum may be invoked on petition of 25 per cent of the number voting for mayor at the last preceding municipal election. One unique check upon initiative measures is the wording of the affidavit attached to the petition whereby the signer declares that he has "*read, or heard read at length, section by section*, the proposed ordinance or measured attached." The recall may be invoked on a petition of 35 per cent of the voters, calculated as in the case of the initiative and referendum.[1] H. S. Gilbertson.

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Illinois.—The legislature amended some ten sections of the commission government act passed the preceding year (special session, 1909–10, p. 12). The most important changes were those reducing the percentage of voters required for a recall petition from 75 to 55, a number which still indicates a cautious spirit in the general assembly. Provision is also made for the verification of the petition by the county or circuit court instead of the council.[2]

Two acts were passed creating pension systems, one for employees of houses of correction in cities of more than 150,000, (Chicago)[3] and one for civil service employees of the city.[4] Several amendments were made to the act governing the police pension fund, some of them the result of the situation revealed by the Merriam commission.[5]

Two important civil service acts should be noticed. One of them extended the merit system over all employees in counties of 150,000 or more (Cook County).[6] There has been for some years a civil service act applying to employees of the county charitable institutions the efficiency of which has been open to very serious question. The other applies the merit system to the three great park systems of Chicago.[7] Both acts restrict the appointment to the candidate highest on the list, and provide for written charges and a formal hearing before the civil service commission precedent to removal. F. D. Bramhall.

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Iowa.—The general assembly enacted two rather important amendments to the commission government law, relating to the civil service provisions of the latter.[8] The powers of the civil service commission are increased, and the commission is given authority to remove from office or employment, by majority vote, any officer or employee of the city subject to its jurisdiction. Certain powers are also given to the city authorities for the temporary or permanent discharge of subordinates. Under the new law, the civil service commission is made the court of last resort on appeal instead of the city council as heretofore. In all appointments preference is to be given to soldiers, sailors or marines of the regular or volunteer army or navy of the United States, provided such persons are otherwise qualified. The new law also makes it a misdemeanor for any member of the police or fire departments to contribute to any party campaign fund or to make any other political contribution.

Another act[9] provides for the removal or discharge of firemen, police officers and policemen under civil service rules in certain cities of the first class, and prescribes the procedure on appeal. Still another act[10] authorizes any city in the

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[1] Certain measures dealing with other features of municipal government may be noticed in a future number.

[2] P. 137.

[3] P. 153.

[4] P. 158.

[5] Pp. 163, 169, 170.

[6] P. 199.

[7] P. 211.

[8] Ch. 54, April 13.

[9] Ch. 33, April 1.

[10] Ch. 57, April 3.

State to establish by ordinance a department to be known as the "department of publicity, development and welfare." The mayor, with the approval of the council, is to have power to appoint a superintendent for this department. It is to be the duty of the department to collect and distribute information relating to the commercial advantages of the city, and in all other ways to act as a medium of publicity. Before such a department can be established in any city it must receive the approval of 60 per cent of the legal voters thereof at a special election called by the city council, or at a general city election at which the council has caused the question of its establishment to be submitted.[1] A. W. SMALL.

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Kansas.—A number of laws concerning bond issues, public utilities, and public improvements were passed which show an increasing regard on the part of the legislature for the rights of cities. The most important act[2] affecting city government was that amending the commission law of 1909. As the law stood, cities of the second class could not become cities of the first class without reverting to the mayor and council system and resubmitting the commission form to the voters. According to the municipal code, cities of 15,000 may become cities of the first class and be entitled to the benefits attached, by proclamation of the governor upon a request from such cities. Hutchinson in 1910 became eligible to first class rating and found no legal way of retaining the commission and becoming first class. The law of 1911 was framed to meet the difficulty but in so doing it worked a hardship upon cities under 30,000 population. It provides that five commissioners shall take the place of three and reduces the salary of mayor from $1200 to $800 and of the commissioners from $1000 to $600, thus making the offices less attractive. It makes necessary a special election to choose commissioners who shall act until the next regular election and calls for a vote by the people at such election upon the continuance of the commission form. It changes the term of mayor to one year, and of the commissioners to two years. Under the commission law for first class cities the terms of all elected officers is two years, and under the law for second class cities it is three years. It also cuts down the taxing power of the city in an amazing fashion and thus limits its progress. It would seem to the advantage of second class cities to remain under the law governing second class cities until better provision can be made for the change.

Another act[4] supplements article 11 of chapter 18 of the laws of 1909 by providing that in cities of the second class candidates must announce upon the primary ballot which particular commissionership they are seeking. The law thus compels a candidate for the commission to designate the office he desires and there can, therefore, be no assignment of duties to each office after the commission is selected.[5]

C. A. DYKSTRA.

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Maine.—In 1908 a new charter was prepared for Portland, by a convention composed of committees from the city government, the board of trade and four other local organizations. This charter was patterned somewhat after the Des Moines plan with an attempt to adapt it to local conditions. It was sent to the legislature for an enabling act to place before the voters of Portland. It was killed in committee. In the early part of 1911, another charter was prepared by a similar convention making improvements upon the previous attempt, patterning it practically after the Des Moines plan. Inasmuch as the previous charter had failed to obtain favorable action as a special act, this later form was proposed as an enabling act for cities throughout the State. But this met with no better fate than its predecessor.

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[1] Ch. 52, 53 and 55; March 21, April 11 and March 22, respectively.

[2] Other acts passed at this session affecting certain other features of municipal government will be dealt with in a later number.

[3] Ch. 95, p. 154.

[4] Ch. 184, p. 313.

[5] Certain acts dealing with other features of city government may be noticed in a future number.

The legislature however did pass two special enabling acts, under one of which[1] Waterville recently voted upon the commission form of government and turned it down, and under the second of which[2] Gardiner voted within a month upon the commission form of government and adopted it. The new Gardiner charter population 5500, provides for a mayor and two aldermen, one to be elected each year for a three year term after the initial election; the administration of city affairs to be divided and classified under three department heads. This is the first city in Maine to pass under the commission form of government, and the results of its experiment will be watched with great interest by the rest of the State. CHARLES F. FLAGG.

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Massachusetts.—At the general election held November 7, new charters were submitted to the voters of five cities for their approval. The commission plan was submitted in Cambridge,[3] Chelsea,[4] Lawrence,[5] Lowell[6] and Pittsfield,[7] in accordance with acts of the last legislature. In two of these five cities, namely Chelsea and Lawrence, an alternative charter was submitted at the same time, and in a third, Pittsfield, two alternative charters were submitted together with the commission plan. The commission plan charters in general conformed to the usual type. That submitted at Cambridge, unlike most of the commission plans of government, provided for the election of commissioners to specific offices instead of leaving to the commissioners the task of dividing the offices among themselves. It also incorporated the form of preferential voting employed earlier in the year in Spokane and modelled upon the preferential voting system of the Grand Junction (Colorado) charter.

In Chelsea, Lawrence and Pittsfield, alternative plans were submitted to the voters, modelled upon the so-called Boston plan with modifications. In Chelsea, the modified Boston plan submitted to the voters, provided for the election of a mayor with the veto power, and a council of nine. The city was to be divided into five wards, in each of which a councilman, or, as he is termed, alderman, should be chosen, and four aldermen should be elected at large. Candidates for mayor and council should be nominated at a non-partisan direct primary. Under this plan, the mayor would be elected annually and also the five aldermen chosen by wards. The four aldermen chosen at large would be elected for terms of two years. The charter also provided for the initiative, referendum and recall. The percentage required on petitions for initiative, referendum and recall was twenty-five, but for a referendum at the regular annual election, instead of at a special election, only a 10 per cent petition was required. The Chelsea plan also made provision for general meetings of the voters upon petition of any five hundred of them, for the discussion of public business and action in relation to the same.

At the election, the commission plan of government was adopted in Lawrence and Lowell, but rejected in Cambridge, though by a narrow margin, and in Chelsea and Pittsfield. In Chelsea the modified Boston plan described above was adopted by a large majority, but in Pittsfield the charter providing only for a few minor modifications of the existing plan of government was adopted.

Another interesting measure submitted to the voters at the November election was a proposal to bring chiefs of police within the civil service.[1] An act of the last legislature provided that upon its acceptance by a majority of those voting thereon in any city of the State, excepting Boston and Fall River where police commissioners are now appointed by the governor, the chief of police should receive the same civil service protection as is now extended to other police officers. The act was adopted in a number of the cities and was also rejected in a number.[2]

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[1] Ch. 219, March 28.

[2] Ch. 72, March 9.

[3] Acts, 1911, ch. 531.

[4] Acts, 1911, ch. 680.

[5] Acts, 1911, ch. 621.

[6] Acts, 1911, ch. 645.

[7] Acts, 1911, ch. 732.

A. N. HOLCOMBE.

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Minnesota.—The home rule plan was introduced in Minnesota by the amendment of 1896 and slightly altered in 1898. The provision was copied from the Missouri constitution of 1875, with a few changes. Any city or village in the State may frame a new charter or may amend the charter so framed. In fact it establishes the initiative and referendum in city charter legislation. The procedure is as follows: The district court may appoint a board of fifteen freeholders and on petition of 10 per cent of the voters must do so. This charter commission is a continuous body holding office for four years, members receiving no pay. Within six months of their appointment the commission is required to submit a draft of a proposed charter to the mayor for submission to the voters at the next election. If four-sevenths of all those voting *at the election* vote for the charter it goes into effect in thirty days. Amendments may be submitted by the charter commission, and, on petition of 5 per cent of the voters, it must submit the amendment suggested in the petition. Amendments require three-fifths of all the votes cast *at the election* to carry. The constitution requires all proposed amendments to be published for thirty days prior to the election in three newspapers in the city. This clause was taken verbatim from the Missouri constitution which extended the home rule privilege to cities over 100,000 only. But in Minnesota any city or village may adopt the plan.

Some forty cities have framed their charters on this plan, of which ten or more were villages at the time, and some were very small cities. The question arises, how can a small place amend its charter in case it has no newspapers at all, or less than three? In Wolfe vs. Moorhead the Supreme Court held the constitution unreasonable and in that case decided that publication in twenty-seven issues of one daily, extending over a period of thirty-one days and in five issues each of two weeklies was sufficient. The constitution, while providing so minutely for the publication of charter amendments does not require the publication of the original charter when it is submitted for adoption. The Minnesota amendment is a good example of what is apt to happen when a detailed statute is incorporated into a constitution.

At the last session an amendment was proposed which will be submitted to the voters in November, 1912.[3] This does not correct all the faults, but is an improvement upon it. Many changes of detail are proposed; the publication clause is altered; and the required vote in charter elections is changed from four-sevenths, in case of original adoption, and three-fifths in case of amendment, to a bare majority vote. This will make it slightly easier to adopt and amend charters when the voters are indifferent. The chief fault, however, remains. It will still be necessary to secure an absolute majority of all the votes cast *at the election* to carry a charter or an amendment to a charter. For example, if the charter be submitted at a general election or at a city election in which 35,000 voters participate, under the original provision a charter will not carry unless 20,000 vote for it; an amendment will not carry unless 21,000 vote for it, although not a single vote be cast in opposition. Under the proposed amendment either a charter or an amendment will not carry unless 17,501 votes are favorable, though not a single opposition vote is cast. The fault with the original home rule clause lies not in the size of the majority required but in prescribing that all votes cast *at the election* shall be counted in calculating the majority. In fact every voter casting a vote for any candidate or for any proposition at the election, but who refrains from expressing an opinion on charter issues is counted as voting in the negative on all charter changes submitted at that election. If the vote for mayor of Minneapolis had been counted in the same manner, no candidate for that office since 1896 would have been elected. Minneapolis has tried five times in eleven years to adopt a charter on the home rule plan and failed each time. Of course if a special election for the adoption of a charter or an amendment be called then every voter participating in the election must necessarily vote either for or against the charter question. In that case the faults of the constitutional rule do not appear, but a special election costs this city at least $10,000, taking no account of campaign expenses or advertising.

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[1] Oct. 1911, ch. 468, May 20.

[2] Certain measures dealing with other features of municipal government may be noticed in a future number.

[3] Ch. 393, April 18, amending Section 36, Article 4, of the Constitution.

The home rule plan in Minnesota, has on the whole not produced any better charters than were secured under general or special acts. It merely changed the process of amending charters. This is due to the fact that the charter commissions have not in a single instance drafted a charter which conveyed to the city government all the legal rights and functions which the constitution and statutes permit a city to exercise. Two recent commission charters[1] are the only exception to the rule. Each one of the thirty-six charters adopted under the home rule plan in this State up to 1910, was modeled on an old special act charter which attempted the absurd task of itemizing in detail every legal right or public function which the city government should have. There is not a single charter among the thirty-six which grants real "home rule." Such charters are in no sense home rule charters, they are simply home-made charters, and not even that for only the new patches are home-made.

The constitutional limitations upon special legislation have not been effective, because the courts have found it necessary to allow a subclassification of cities within the four classes established by the constitution. For there are home rule cities and special act cities in each of the four classes, besides two general act cities in the fourth class; and then there are 180 villages ranging in population from 500 to 8000 which are not classified. To meet the legislative needs of all these municipalities it was deemed necessary to declare acts valid which apply to all the cities of a class excepting cities having home rule charters. There are three cities in the first class: Minneapolis, St. Paul and Duluth of which the last two have had home rule charters since 1900. In the past eleven years 313 acts have been passed which amend the charter of St. Paul. In many cases when amendments were voted down at the election, the county delegation secured the proposed change by action of the legislature.[2]

Wm. A. Schaper.

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Montana.—The most important law affecting cities was the commission government law.[3] It was approved February 28, 1911, and is similar to the Iowa law. It provides that a petition signed by 25 per cent of the qualified electors of a city is sufficient to submit to the people the question of reorganization of the city government.

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[1] Those of Mankato and Faribault. The latter was adopted in 1911.

[2] Certain measures dealing with other features of municipal government may be noticed in a future number.

[3] Ch. 57, Feb. 28.

All ward lines are abolished and the power is distributed between a mayor and two or four councilmen In cities of the second and third classes provision is made for a mayor and two councilmen, and in cities of the first class having a population of 25,000, for a mayor and two councilmen, but in cities having a population of over 25,000, for a mayor and four councilmen, all elected at large. An official may be recalled at any time on the petition of 25 per cent of the voters. Legislation may be initiated on the petition of 25 per cent of the voters, and on a petition of 10 per cent of the voters the people can compel the submission of an ordinance proposed by the council to a referendum vote. As a further measure, the people have the right to refuse all public utility franchises. Civil service reform is another feature of the new law, as is also publicity in relation to all city affairs in a monthly report.[1]

MARY F. SHERIFF.

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Nebraska.—Legislation affecting municipal interests had a front place during 1911. Perhaps the most important matters under consideration were home rule for cities and the commission form of government. There were several different forms of these propositions before the legislature, giving rise to earnest discussion and sometimes to heated controversy.

Municipal home rule was provided for in the form of an amendment to the constitution[2] which will be voted upon at the general election in November, 1912. The amendment as submitted provides that any city having a population of more than 5000 may frame its own charter through a charter convention. Membership in the charter convention is limited to fifteen freeholders who have been qualified electors in the city for at least five years and who shall be chosen by the qualified voters of the city at any general or special election. Within four months after their election they shall submit a charter to the voters of the city which shall be voted upon at a general or special election within thirty days after its publication. If rejected, another charter convention may be held within six months thereafter and a second charter submitted in like manner, and this process may be repeated until a charter is adopted. Any such charter may be amended or a new convention called upon proposal by the law-making body of the city or upon petition by not less than 5 per cent of the qualified voters. Alternative sections or articles may be submitted to the voters, each of which may be voted upon separately without prejudice to the others. No charter or amendment shall be amended or repealed except by vote of the electors.

The commission government act[3] provides that any city having a population of 5000 or more may adopt its provisions. Within twenty days after the filing of a petition signed by 25 per cent of the votes cast for mayor at the preceding city election, the proposition for the adoption of the commission form of government shall be submitted at a special election. No signer on such petition shall be permitted to withdraw his name after it is filed. If a proposition for the commission form of government shall be defeated, it shall not be again submitted for two years. If the proposition is adopted the number of councilmen who shall be elected at large is as follows: 100,000 or more—seven councilmen; 25,000 to 100,000—five councilmen; 5000 to 25,000—three councilmen.

A primary election for the selection of candidates for councilmen shall be held. Candidates for councilmen shall file a statement of their candidacy, together with their petition signed by twenty-five qualified voters in cities of 5000 to 25,000, and one hundred qualified voters in cities of over 25,000 population, and shall pay the fee for the expenses of said primary.

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[1] Up to the present time Missoula is the only city in the State which has adopted the commission form of city government.

[2] Ch. 227, March 29.

[3] Ch. 24, April 7.

No party designation shall be permitted upon the ballot. The names shall be rotated upon the printed ballots. Candidates at the primary receiving the highest number of votes, in number not exceeding twice the number of councilmen to be selected at the general election, shall be considered the nominees. At the general election the ballots shall be similar in form and in rotation of names to those used at the primary election, and the three, five, or seven persons receiving the highest number of votes shall be elected councilmen.

The city council so selected shall possess and exercise all executive, legislative or judicial powers hitherto held by the mayor, council, water board, board of fire and police, park or excise board or fire warden. These powers and functions shall be distributed into departments, one department to each councilman. The council so selected shall choose a president, who shall be known as mayor of the city, and shall be paid an additional stipend. He shall have no veto power. The city council shall elect all other officers and fix their salaries. No employee of the police, fire, or water departments shall be employed for political reasons, nor can he be discharged except on charges and hearing thereon. The council shall have power to discontinue or abolish any office it deems necessary and to create any office or board. Efforts to influence any city employee in politics by any other officer or employee is a misdemeanor punished by fine or imprisonment. Any councilman may be recalled at an election petitioned for by 30 per cent of the qualified voters and his successor may be chosen at the same election. The initiative and referendum upon ordinances may be called by a petition of 15 per cent of the qualified voters. After four years' trial any city adopting the commission form of government may by a majority vote abandon the same.[1] A. E. Sheldon.

Nevada.—The most important measures affecting municipal government were the two constitutional amendments providing respectively for the initiative and referendum and for the recall. The former of these amendments[2] applies to county and municipal governments, so far as local, special and municipal legislation of every character is concerned. The legislature may provide for the manner in which these powers are to be exercised, but it cannot require the signature of more than 10 per cent of the voters of any county or municipality to put into effect the referendum, nor the signatures of more than 15 per cent to propose any municipal measure by initiative. The second of these amendments[3] provides that any public officer—State, county, district or municipal—may be subjected to a recall election upon petition of 20 per cent of the electors. The reason for the petition is to be set forth in not over two hundred words. A special election must be ordered within twenty days. The ballot at such an election is to contain not only the argument above mentioned in favor of the petition, but also the official's justification and defense of his position expressed in not over two hundred words. No petition is to be filed against any public officer until after he has held office for at least six months, except it be a legislative officer, in which case it may be filed not earlier than ten days after the beginning of the first session.

Another measure of general interest is the act[4] incorporating the town of Los Vegas, and providing for it a charter approximately of the commission form. This charter provides for a mayor and four commissioners to be elected at large. The four commissioners are to be designated by the mayor and may be changed from one department to another by the mayor at any time. The act also provides for the recall of any elective official upon petition of 20 per cent of the entire number of citizens entitled to vote.[1]

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[1] Certain measures dealing with other features of municipal government will be dealt with in a future number.

[2] No. 3, p. 446, February 1.

[3] No. 4, p. 448, February 2.

[4] Ch. 132, March 16.

(Rev.) Lloyd B. Thomas.

⁂

New Hampshire.—The legislature authorized towns and cities to vote such sums of money as they shall judge necessary to establish, equip and maintain public play-grounds;[2] to appropriate not more than $800 each, annually, for free band concerts;[3] to contract with street railways to sprinkle the streets;[4] empowered the city of Keene to acquire a municipal forest to protect its water supply;[5] provided for charter revision in Keene[6] and Manchester,[7] enacted an mended charter for Nashua,[8] which was rejected by her citizens; and continued the policy of the State in interfering with local police affairs, in several instances fixing the per diem salaries of policemen.

E. L. Page.

⁂

New Jersey.—Bowing to the will of the people of New Jersey, as expressed at the general election in November, 1910, when Woodrow Wilson was elected governor and carried into office with him the Democratic House in the legislature, the General Assembly enacted many progressive laws including thirty-nine statutes regulating certain features of municipal government. Perhaps the most important of these latter measures is the Walsh commission government act,[9] which permits all towns and cities by referendum vote, to adopt government by commission, with initiative, referendum and recall features. This act provides that the commission form may be adopted in any municipality by a majority of those voting on the question at a special election, provided such majority vote equals 30 per cent of the votes cast at the last preceding election for members of the general assembly. The important features of the act are that it centralizes responsibility in municipal government; creates business efficiency and makes every act of the governing body open to the knowledge of the general public through public meetings. Among other things, the act provides for the initiation of municipal ordinances by 15 per cent of the vote; recall of elective officers by special elections upon petitions signed by 25 per cent of the voters; and the reference of municipal legislation to popular vote upon a petition signed by 15 per cent of the legal voters.

All city boards, officers and employees, except the board of education, the police force and the firemen, are abolished from the date at which the first commission takes office, and the commissioners are vested with all administrative, judicial and legislative powers, vested in any preceding governing body. Other noteworthy features are the public advertising of all ordinances of vital interest; a limited bonded debt, not to exceed 10 per cent of the assessed valuation of all property within the city; elimination of political preference in appointments to office; monthly publication of financial statements as to the city's finances and direct nomination of all candidates for the office of commissioner.

Other important laws enacted at the last session include acts providing for summary investigation of the financial affairs of cities and counties; for the settlement and relief of the poor; for the establishment of playgrounds; for an eight hour day for workmen in cities; for municipal ownership and control of water plants; for municipal power and lighting plants; for pensioning policemen and for the promotion of shade-tree planting in cities.[10]

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[1] Other acts passed at this session affecting other features of municipal government will be dealt with in a future number.

[2] Ch. 146, April 14.

[3] Ch. 81, March 28.

[4] Ch. 39, March 7.

[5] Ch. 233, April 5.

[6] Ch. 316, March 30.

[7] Ch. 286, March 7.

[8] Ch. 360, April 15.

[9] Ch. 221.

[10] Some of these measures may be noticed in a later number.

Another act which had a most important indirect effect upon city government, was the Geran election law.[1]

FRANK THOMPSON.

⁂

New York.—Only one measure of any general importance relating to any of the features of municipal government dealt with in this number was enacted at the 1911 session—viz., a resolution providing for a home-rule amendment to the constitution, which was passed for the first time. This resolution and certain acts relating to other features of city government will be dealt with in a future number. The contest over the Tammany-Gaynor charter is described elsewhere (page 61) in this issue by Mr. Tanzer.

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North Carolina.—No acts of any importance dealing with charters or charter-making, the structure or working of city government or the relation of the city to the State, were passed. A special primary election law was enacted, applying only to the city of Raleigh and to Wake County. This act[2] provides for official primary ballots of the office-group form. It also prescribes various rules to govern primary elections, in addition to those provided by the general primary law of the State.

A few other acts affecting municipal government were adopted. One of these[3] amends section 2916 of the Revisal of 1905 authorizing municipalities to operate and maintain waterworks, sewerage systems, gas and electric-light plants, etc. Another[4] allows the authorities of any incorporated city or town to submit to popular vote, on petition of 25 per cent of the registered voters, the question of the establishment of a free public library. Another[5] provides a new charter for the city of Kingston.

North Dakota.—An important law relating to cities was the extension of the commission form of government to include towns and villages having a population of not less than 500 inhabitants.[6] The old law (1907) permitted only cities of 2000 population or more to adopt this plan of government. The scheme of administration remains the same.

Another important law provided for the initiative, referendum and recall in cities which have adopted the commission plan.[7] A strange feature of the law is that the percentage requirement in each case is 25 per cent. When an officer is sought to be removed, the petition praying for such removal must be signed by a number of qualified voters equal to at least 25 per cent of the votes cast for all candidates for the office of president of the city commission at the last general municipal election. Within not less than thirty days nor more than forty days after the filing of such petition with the city auditor an election must be called. The person sought to be removed may be a candidate to succeed himself, and unless he requests otherwise in writing, his name is placed on the ballot. The candidate receiving the highest number of votes is declared elected.

Any proposed ordinance may be submitted to the board of city commissioners by petition signed by electors of the city equal in number to 25 per cent of the votes cast for all candidates for president of the city commission at the preceding general municipal election. An election must then be called within twenty days and if the majority of votes cast are in favor of such ordinance it becomes valid and binding.

No ordinance passed by the city commission can go into effect until ten days after its passage, unless the preservation of public peace, health or safety requires that it shall go into effect immediately. If a petition signed by a number of legal voters equal to 25 per cent of all the votes cast for the office of president of the city commission at the preceding general municipal election be presented to the commission, protesting against the passage of such ordinance, the commission may reconsider its action or repeal the same, or if it is not entirely repealed, must call an election, and such ordinance does not become operative unless a majority of votes cast are in its favor.[1]

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[1] Ch. 183.

[2] Ch. 620, March 6.

[3] Ch. 86, March 4.

[4] Ch. 83, March 4.

[5] Ch. 578, March 4.

[6] Laws 1911, ch. 77.

[7] Laws 1911, ch. 67.

I. A. Acker.

⁂

Ohio.—The principles of initiative and referendum have been applied to municipal affairs by the terms of an act passed by the last general assembly.[2] Thirty per cent (30 per cent) of the qualified voters may propose ordinances to the council, both new ones and repealing ones. This petition must be filed with the city clerk within one hundred and twenty days after the date of the first signature, and by him submitted to council. If this body fails to act on it within sixty days the propositions are certified to the election officials for popular vote at the next general election. Any ordinance "granting a franchise creating a right, involving the expenditure of money or exercising any other power," shall be submitted to a vote of the people, if fifteen per cent (15 per cent) of the voters sign a petition for its reference within thirty days after its passage.

No ordinance of any municipal corporation creating a right, involving the expenditure of money or granting a franchise to a public or quasi-public utility shall become operative in less than sixty days after its passage. This inoperative feature affects all the acts of the council, save some measures classed as "emergency" which go into effect immediately, if they receive a three-fourths majority vote in council. The chief difficulty with this law is the holding-up of the ordinances for 60 days. Coupled with this is the inability of cities to make advance drafts on the county treasury for money, or to pass appropriation ordinances upon their credit.

The maximum number of city councilmen allowed in Ohio has been fixed at thirty-two (32).[3] The method of determining the number is as follows: Between 5000 and 25,000 population, the council is, by law, to consist of seven members, four of whom are elected by wards, and three at large. Between 25,000 and 40,000, nine members constitute the city council, six being elected by wards and the other three at large. For each 15,000 added after the 25,000 mark is passed, one additional member is elected. When the number of councilmen is fifteen or more, one member of every five is elected at large, the remainder from wards.[4]

Charles Wells Reeder.

⁂

Oklahoma.—Only one act was passed dealing with any of the subjects treated in this number. This was an act[5] relating to municipal elections, and making several minor amendments to the previous law relating to this subject (L. 1910, ch. 92). It provides for the division of towns into wards for general city elections, and fixes the date of municipal elections in incorporated towns and villages on the first Tuesday in April, 1911, and every two years thereafter. It also makes the office of town marshal, heretofore appointive, an elective office, and provides for the election of town trustees. The act contains no changes of any great importance.

A few other acts of minor importance, however, dealing with other features of municipal government were adopted. One of these[6] allows cities of the first class to establish and maintain free public libraries and reading-rooms. Cities with not less than 1000 colored inhabitants may provide a separate library and reading room for negroes. Another act[1] slightly amends the existing law as to condemnation of private property for public purposes by cities of the first class. Still another[2] regulates the annexation to cities of any but the first class of lands sold for certain purposes and allows them to be detached from the city again on petition of two-thirds of the resident property owners. A fourth act[3] authorizes the closing of a public highway on land acquired by a city as a reservoir site.

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[1] Laws 1911, ch. 58.

[2] 102 Ohio laws, 521-524.

[3] 102 Ohio laws, 77.

[4] Certain acts dealing with other features of municipal government will be noticed in a future number.

[5] Ch. 136, March 24.

[6] Ch. 19, March 16.

⁂

Oregon.—Practically the only important measure enacted affecting municipal government was a public utilities bill,[4] which conferred broad regulative powers upon the railroad commission of Oregon as to street railways, gas, electric, water, telegraph and telephone companies. The act followed closely the lines of the familiar Wisconsin law. However, the provisions of the Wisconsin statute as to the issuance of an indeterminate privilege and for the acquisition of public utility plants by the municipal governments were omitted. Municipally owned plants are also excluded from regulation by the commission. Provision is made for an appeal from the municipal council to the commission on the question of the reasonableness of any contract or franchise between a municipality and the utility corporation, but this provision does not apply to such contracts when approved by the people through the referendum or initiated by the people themselves.

The operation of the public utilities bill was suspended by the filing of a petition for a referendum thereon. This was done by supporters of a movement for an amendment of the Portland city charter which would create a local city utilities commission. The votes of the city however, voted against the creation o' a local commission. In November, 1912, at the general election, the State wide public utilities bill will be either approved or rejected by the voters of the State.[5]

⁂

Pennsylvania.—While by far the greater part of the legislation enacted in 1911 related to "municipalities" in the broad sense of the word, yet most of it has but little interest for any one living outside of the State. From a non-Pennsylvanian standpoint, perhaps the change made in the councils of cities of the second class (100,000 to 1,000,000,) is of greatest interest. Until the act of May 31, 1911,[6] was passed cities of the second class (Pittsburg and Scranton) had a bicameral council, known as select and common council. The select council comprised a member from each ward elected for four years. The common council was made up of members elected for two years from the various wards, each ward being entitled to representation according to the number of taxables. Members of council received no compensation for their services.

The new council (uni-cameral) provided for in this act calls for a minimum of five members and for one additional for every 75,000 inhabitants above 200,000 up to 500,000. They shall each receive not less than $2000 nor more than $6500 per annum as salary, with fines for non-attendance at meetings of council or councilmanic committees. The heads of executive departments are appointed as heretofore by the mayor but must have the approval of council. Members of council must not hold any other office, city, State, or national, nor be interested in any matter coming before the body, nor be interested in any corporation applying for a franchise from the city.

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[1] Ch. 15, March 6.

[2] Ch. 83, March 15.

[3] Ch. 87, March 15.

[4] Ch. 279, February 24, p. 500.

[5] This statement was secured from one of the members of the Oregon railroad commission by Miss Cornelia Marvin, legislative reference librarian at the Oregon State Library.

[6] Laws 1911, p. 461.

There were three constitutional amendments of interest proposed in regard to municipalities. One, which was also passed at the session of 1909, was submitted to the people November 7, 1911, and approved.[1] This new amendment provides that debts may be incurred by Philadelphia, exclusive of the debt limit of 7 per cent of the assessed value of property, imposed on cities by the State constitution, for the construction of wharves and docks or the reclamation of land for such purpose as public improvements, when such wharves and docks will yield a revenue in excess of the interest of such debt. Another[2] provides that obligations issued by any county or municipality, other than Philadelphia, to provide for waterworks, subways, or underground railways, or street railways, shall not be considered a debt of such municipality within the meaning of the constitutional provision limiting its debt to 7 per cent. This proposed amendment further enlarges the debt incurring capacity of such municipalities or counties to 10 per cent of the assessed value of the taxable property therein. The third[3] permits the classifying of subjects of taxation for the purpose of laying graded or progressive taxes.[4]

JAMES MCKIRDY.

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South Carolina.—Three amendments to the constitution affecting municipal government were ratified by the legislature after having been adopted by popular vote The first two of these amendments[5] except from the debt limit provisions of the constitution (Article 8, Section 7, and Article 10, Section 5) the towns of Darlington (as to bonds issued for drainage purposes and approved by voters), and Aiken, Camden, Cheraw, Clinton, Edgefield and St. Matthews (as to bonds issued for certain specific purposes). The third also excepts from these provisions bonds issued by any municipal corporation solely for the purchase, establishment and maintenance of a water works plant, sewerage system or lighting plant, provided that such municipal bond issues are approved by the voters in accordance with legal requirements.

A fourth amendment was also adopted by the legislature,[6] excepting from the above mentioned provisions of the constitution bonds issued by the town of St. Matthews in a certain specified way and for certain specified purposes.

An act was also passed[7] adding to the code a new section (Section 1997a) relating to the extension of the corporate limits of cities and towns by the consolidation therewith of adjacent territory. This act allows stipulations made by either the city or town or the adjacent territory prior to such consolidation to become a binding contract on the city or town after consolidation.

There were a few other minor enactments relating to details of municipal government—one relating to the maintenance of public cotton weighing platforms in certain cities and the regulation of the purchase, sale and weighing of cotton.[8]

⁂

South Dakota.—The most important measure was an amendment to the commission government law.[9] The original law[10] provided for a commission of five members and the first amendment of 1911 provides that cities may have three members instead of five if desired. The other amendments change the form of the ballot and permit voters to vote for either three or five commissioners; provide for a secondary election in case no candidate receives a majority of votes at the first;

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[1] Laws 1911, p. 1160.

[2] Laws 1911, p. 1167.

[3] Laws 1911, p. 1167.

[4] Certain acts dealing with other features of municipal government will be noticed in a future number.

[5] Nos. 4, 7 and 8, February 17, February 3 and February 3, respectively.

[6] No. 9, February 3.

[7] No. 12, February 17.

[8] No. 19, February 17.

[9] Ch. 97.

[10] L. 1907, ch. 86, as amended by L. 1909, chs. 57 and 158.

regulate the salaries of the commissioners and mayor, making $1500 and $2000 respectively the maximum; give special duties to the mayor; change the qualifications of eligibility for commissioners from five years' to two years' residence; require the treasurer's bond to be one-half of, instead of the whole amount of the estimated tax for the current year; provide that the assessed valuation of personal property shall not be increased over 20 per cent without notice; and lengthen from sixty days to six months the time of investment of the sinking fund, giving the same additional time for the loaning of moneys.

Another act[1] amends the present law relating to the powers and duties of cities in the matter of local improvements by providing that if all interested owners of abutting property, petition for such improvements, no publication of notice is necessary, and by making twenty days' notice of personal service equivalent to four weeks' publication of the notice in a daily newspaper. Still another act,[2] empowers city councils of cities of not less than 1000 inhabitants, subject to the approval of the voters, to grant to street railroads 30 year franchises.

Ida M. Anding.

⁂

Texas.—Two amendments to the constitution, affecting cities, were passed and will be voted upon in November, 1912. The first of these[3] authorizes cities of 5000 inhabitants or over, to formulate their own charters, subject to the terms of the constitution and to such regulations as the legislature may prescribe. The second[4] authorizes the legislature to provide for terms of six years each for members of all boards established by law, one-third of the number to be chosen bi-enially. This will apply to boards of municipal commissioners, and to school boards. The terms of such officers are now limited to two years.

The fact that a number of cities were shown by the census of 1910 to have reached the 10,000 class entitled these cities to special charters under the old provisions of the constitution, and this, together with the fact that the constitution had been amended at the same time so as to make all cities of 5000 inhabitants or over eligible for such charters, was made the occasion for the grant of new charters to eleven municipalities. Those for Longview,[5] Laredo[6] Houston Heights,[7] Hillsboro[8] and Bonham[9] do not provide for the commission form of government. The charter for Abilene,[10] however, is of the commission type. It provides for a mayor and four commissioners, two of the commissioners to be elected from the northern half and two from the southern half of the city.

The charters of the cities hereinafter named all provide for the commission form of government. The Temple charter[11] provides for a mayor and two aldermen; that of Sulphur Springs,[12] for a mayor and two commissioners to be elected in alternate years; that of San Angelo,[13] for a mayor and two commissioners to be chosen one year and two commissioners to be chosen the next year; that of Taylor[14] for a mayor and three commissioners; that of Terrell[15] for a chairman of the board and two commissioners to be chosen in alternate years; that of Port Arthur[16] for three commissioners. The essential features of the commission form of government, which are found in all these charters are, first, the popular election of the members of the board of commissioners and of no other officers, and, second, the election of these officers by the voters of the city at large.

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[1] Ch. 95.

[2] Ch. 96.

[3] Regular Session, p. 284.

[4] Regular Session, p. 286.

[5] Regular Session, Special laws, p. 1.

[6] Regular Session, Special laws, p. 58.

[7] Regular Session, Special laws, p. 102.

[8] Regular Session, Special laws, p. 218.

[9] Regular Session, Special laws, p. 645.

[10] Regular Session, Special laws, p. 247.

[11] Regular Session, Special laws, p. 314.

[12] Regular Session, Special laws, p. 375.

[13] Regular Session, Special laws, p. 433.

[14] Regular Session, Special laws, ch. 50, March 20.

[15] Regular Session, Special laws, p. 508.

[16] Regular Session, Special laws, p. 569.

Twenty-four bills were passed amending various city charters, most of them making provision for public mprovements. Perhaps the most important is an amendment to the Dallas charter[1] authorizing the board of commissioners to enact an ordinance requiring the night closing of saloons. Another authorizes the city of Temple to establish a training school for juveniles.[2]

Governor Colquitt vetoed the bill providing a new charter for the city of Texarkana, chiefly because of its provision for the recall of elective officers, but also, according to his message, because of his belief that the provisions for the initiative and referendum were in violation of the fundamental principles of our form of government. Other charter bills pending at this time, or subsequently introduced, were altered to meet the executive's views. In this connection, it is interesting to note that, while the court of criminal appeals, the state court of last resort in criminal matters, soon afterwards held that ordinances enacted in Dallas under the initiative and referendum provisions of its charter were invalid, the supreme court of Texas, the court of last resort in civil matters, held that the recall was not violative of the Texas constitution.

Tom Finty, Jr.

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Utah —The first effort for a commission form was made at the legislative session of 1907. The managers of the dominant party in the state were, however, opposed to a change from the old form of government, and the bills, which were introduced were smothered in committee. In the fall of 1909, the Civic Improvement League of Salt Lake City sent a committee to Des Moines for the purpose of investigating and reporting upon the results of the commission government there. It reported favorably and bills modeled after the general plan of the Des Moines system were introduced in the legislature of 1909. It was a notable feature of the fight that the leaders of the American party, which was in power in Salt Lake City, and the leaders of the Republican party, which was in power in the state, combined in an effort to defeat the passage of the bills. The members of the legislature generally, however, were in favor of giving the system a trial, and the bills passed, but were vetoed by the governor.

In 1911 the effort was again renewed, and after eliminating the initiative, referendum and recall, the bills were passed, and received the approval of the governor.[3] Provision was made for the election of a city auditor instead of providing for his appointment by the commissioners, as in the Iowa plan. Cities of the second class have but three commissioners. Salt Lake city is the only city of the first class: There are four cities of the second class, viz: Ogden, Logan, Murray and Provo. The cities to which the plan applies are given no option in the matter, as the law is self-acting, and requires no vote to put it in effect.

In Salt Lake City and Ogden, the salaries are fixed at $4200 for the mayor and $3600 for the other commissioners, and the auditor $2400 per annum. The cities of the second class having less than 20,000 population provide by ordinance the salaries of the officers, and it is the duty of the out-going city council to fix the salaries of the incoming officers.[4]

Frank B. Stephens.

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Washington.—Cities of 20,000 inhabitants or over are granted by the constitution the privilege of framing and adopting their own charters. Under this constitutional provision Tacoma and Spokane have adopted the commission form of government. The Allen[1] act passed in 1911 provides a form of government which may be adopted by cities not included within the home-rule provision of the State constitution. It follows rather closely the Des Moines law adapting the provisions to the needs of the small city. The term of office for the mayor and two commissioners is three years. Nominations are to be made by petition of one hundred voters and provision is made for non-partisan primary and regular elections. The salary of the mayor ranges from $500 in cities of 2500 to $2500 in cities of more than 14,000; the salary of the commissioners from $250 to $2000. As is the custom in cities with the commission form of city government the commission is granted full legislative executive and administrative powers. The mayor is entrusted with special supervisory functions, but no veto power. The city clerk is the only office in addition to the commissioners designated specifically in the act. Other officers and employees may be appointed and removed at the discretion of the commissioners. The salaries and duties of such officers and employees are to be determined by the commission. The act provides for the initiative, referendum, and recall. The initiative and referendum may be invoked on petition of twenty-five per centum of voters, the recall requires thirty-five per centum. A recall election may not be called until six months after the commissioners have taken office. For all grants of special privileges or franchises, special publicity is required and for the granting of public service franchises the referendum is made compulsory.

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[1] First called Session, p. 129.

[2] First called Session, p. 179.

[3] Chs. 125 and 126, March 20, The electoral provisions applying to cities of the first and second classes were put in a separate bill, ch. 126.

[4] Certain measures dealing with other features of municipal government may be dealt with in a future number.

The act does not contain civil service provisions, such as are included in the Des Moines and other commission government acts. The plan for the adoption of the act and return to the old form of city government after the lapse of six years may be accomplished in either case on petition of twenty-five per centum of voters and a majority of the votes cast at a special election. The main significance of the Allen act lies in the fact that all the cities of the state of Washington may now, if they so choose, adopt the essential features of commission government in the form that has spread so rapidly throughout the cities of the United States.

Hoquiam, Walla Walla and North Yakima have adopted the act and are now governed by a city commission of three members.

In order to set at rest a certain type of objection to charters adopted by cities of the first class an act[2] was passed authorizing any city of the first class to provide in its charter for the recall of elective officers and for direct legislation by the people on any matter within the scope of city powers.[3]

Charles G. Haines.

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West Virginia.—West Virginia added to its list of commissioned-governed cities in 1911 by granting a new charter, modelled more or less on that of Des Moines, to Parkersburg. This charter[4] provides for the election at large of a mayor and four councilmen who are to have complete control of the city's affairs. They are to be nominated by a non-partisan direct primary, and the two candidates for each office who receive the largest number of votes at the primary election are to have their names printed on a non-partisan office-group ballot at the general election. There are to be five departments of government, the powers and duties of which are to be determined by the commission itself, and the headship of each of which is to be assigned by the commission to one of its members. The commission is to appoint a civil service board of three members who are to have control over appointments to office in the departments of police, fire and waterworks. The members of the commission are to be subject to a recall election on petition of twenty per cent of the voters who were qualified to vote at the last preceding municipal election. A referendum on any municipal ordinance may also be ordered by a twenty per cent petition. Any ordinance not in conflict with the constitution or laws of the state may be proposed by petition. If the petition is signed by twenty per cent of the qualified voters, the ordinance must be submitted to popular vote at a special election unless a general municipal election is to be held within ninety days. If the petition is signed by only ten per cent of the qualified voters the proposed ordinance is to be submitted to popular vote at the next general election. This charter was adopted by the city of Parkersburg by popular vote on March 21, 1911.

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[1] Ch. 98, March 17.

[2] Ch. 17, February 21.

[3] Certain act dealing with other features of municipal government will be noticed in a future number.

[4] Ch. 83, February 22.

While the legislature thus extended the commission form of government, it took a step in the opposite direction by adopting a series of amendments to the charter of Charleston. This charter, granted in 1909, provided for a board of affairs with large powers—virtually a commission under another name—but compromised with the older theories of American city government by dividing authority between this board of affairs and a small city council. The amendments adopted at the last session[1] further accentuated this division of authority by declaring the council a coördinate branch of the city government and by prescribing that every ordinance, franchise or amendment adopted by the board of affairs should be subject to the council's approval. The powers of the board of affairs in regard to licenses, and to the calling of local option elections as to the sale of liquor, were also altered.

Wisconsin.—A number of laws pertaining to cities were enacted by the Wisconsin legislature in 1911, but by far the most important of all was that providing home rule for cities.[2] Although recognized as a progressive State, Wisconsin has been slow to accord self-government to its cities. Cities have exercised only such powers as have been specifically granted to them by special charter or general laws, and these grants of power have been strictly construed. The home rule law reverses this practice, and presumes each city to have all powers with reference to its municipal affairs which are not expressly withheld by the constitution or general laws of the state. As stated in the first section, "every city, in addition to the powers now possessed, is hereby given authority to alter or amend its charter, or to adopt a new charter by convention, in the manner provided in this act, and for that purpose is hereby granted and declared to have all powers in relation to the form of its government, and to the conduct of its municipal affairs not in contravention of, or withheld by the constitution or laws operative throughout the state."

Proposed amendments are to be first introduced in the common council or other legislative assembly of the city. This may be done by an alderman or by any twenty-five citizens. If enacted by the council, the amendment must be submitted to the people. If the common council refuses to adopt the amendment, it may still be submitted to a vote of the people upon the petition of ten or fifteen per cent of the qualified electors of the city. If the petition contains fifteen per cent, it is submitted at a special meeting called for that purpose, but if the petition contains but ten per cent of the electors, it is submitted at the next municipal, school, or judicial election. If a majority of the electors voting on the proposition vote in favor of it, it becomes a law and a part of the city charter; but if a majority vote against it, it has no force whatever. In all cases a vote of the people is required. In the case of radical and extensive amendments or a complete revision of the charter, provision is made for the calling of charter revision convention.

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[1] Ch. 84, February 22, vetoed by the governor but re-passed over his veto.

[2] Ch. 476.

There being some doubt under the Wisconsin constitution as to whether the legislature could enact such a thorough-going home rule law, and there always being the danger that a future legislature may repeal it, the legislature also passed a joint resolution to amend the constitution so that cities might forever have this right of local self-government independent of future legislatures.[1]

Under the Wisconsin constitution this joint resolution must also be passed by the next legislature and then adopted by the people of the state, before these home rule provisions may be engrafted in the constitution itself. In the meantime, however, the cities have a home rule statute, and Wisconsin thus becomes the eighth state in the United States to provide home rule for cities.

Statutes were also enacted providing for the initiative, referendum,[2] and recall.[3] By the initiative any proposed ordinance may be submitted to the council upon petition of the voters, and must either be passed by the council within thirty days or submitted without alteration to a vote of the people. If the petition requesting the passage of the ordinance contains signatures equal to fifteen per cent of the voters, it is submitted at the next regular election, but if it contains signatures equal to 25 per cent of the voters, the proposed ordinance must be submitted at a special election called for that purpose. If supported by a majority of the electors voting thereon, the ordinance becomes a law with the same force and effect as if enacted by the council in the regular performance of its functions.

Under the referendum statute, no ordinance, except an emergency ordinance, becomes effective before twenty days from the date of its passage. If within those twenty days a petition is filed, signed by 20 per cent of the voters, and protesting against the enactment of the ordinance, the operation of the ordinance is suspended, and the council must either reconsider and appeal it or submit it to a vote of the people. The referendum is also made to apply to emergency ordinances, which are defined in the law as ordinances passed by a two-thirds vote of the council and declared to be necessary for some immediate purpose, but such ordinances become effective at once. That is, the ordinance becomes effective upon its passage without waiting the twenty days, but a referendum petition may be filed against it, and an election held, and if a majority vote against it, it stands repealed.

By the recall, any elective city official may be made to stand for reëlection. Upon petition of one-third of the electors voting for all candidates for governor at the last election, requesting that a recall election be held and stating the grounds which upon the officer is sought to be recalled, and election is held for that purpose. Unless the officer sought to be recalled resigns, he is placed upon the recall ballot to succeed himself. A primary is held for the purpose of choosing candidates to oppose him. If the incumbent is a candidate to succeed himself, only the candidate receiving the highest number of votes at the primary opposes him; if the incumbent is not a candidate, the two highest candidates at the primary are placed on the ballot at the recall election. If the incumbent receives the highest number of votes he remains in office, but if his opponent receives the highest number he is recalled, and his opponent becomes his successor. When the incumbent is not a candidate, the candidate receiving the highest number of votes is declared elected.

These laws apply to all cities in the state except those under the commission form of government, which already have such provisions.[1]

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[1] Joint Resolution 31-S.

[2] Ch. 543.

[3] Ch. 635.

FORD H. MACGREGOR.

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Wyoming.—While the sessions of the legislature are limited to forty days, many so-called "reform measures" were enacted in 1911. At the next general election in 1912, an amendment to the constitution will be submitted to the popular vote on a proposed amendment for the initiative and referendum. This enactment, together with those providing for the headless ballot, corrupt practices, direct primaries and the commission form of government for cities, comprise the chief "reform" measures passed.

Of the laws passed the last mentioned is of special importance at this time. All cities of the first class, having a population of 3000 and over, may at a special election vote upon the proposition for a commission form.[2] Fifteen per cent of the registered voters of a first class city must file a petition with the city clerk for this election before the mayor of the city may issue a proclamation for the special election to vote on this form. If the proposition is not accepted by any city at such an election the question cannot be voted upon again for two years, and even then 25 per cent of the voters must sign the petition for another election. When the proposition is favorably acted upon by the qualified voters of a city, a special election is called by the mayor of the city for the election of a mayor and two commissioners. These officers are to receive $2400 and $2000 respectively.

The term of office of the three commissioners is for four years and any vacancy that occurs in the commission the remaining members shall appoint a person to fill such vacancy during the balance of the unexpired term. Candidates must be nominated by a primary election, which is held on the second Tuesday preceding such municipal election. The two candidates receiving the highest number of votes for mayor and the four receiving the highest vote for the office of commissioner shall be the candidates on the official ticket. If only two candidates for mayor and four for commissioner appear on the petition for the primary election, then they will not be voted upon at such primary election but placed on the official ballot in the same way as if nominated at a primary. Two members of the council constitute a quorum, but the mayor does not have the power to veto. No officer or employee may be interested, directly or indirectly in any contract or job for work or materials, or the profits thereof, of service to be furnished or performed for the city. The three commissioners are to be subject to a recall election when at least twenty-five per cent of the registered voters petition for it. Any proposed ordinance may be submitted to the council by the initiative and all ordinances passed by the council, except those for the immediate preservation of the public peace and safety may be acted upon by the people through the referendum.

Thus far (November, 1911) only one city in Wyoming has availed itself of the commission form, viz., Sheridan, where the measure passed by a bare majority of twenty votes.

GRACE RAYMOND HEBARD

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[1] Certain important acts dealing with other features of municipal government will be dealt with in a future number.

[2] Chapter 84.

EVENTS AND PERSONALIA

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I. STRUCTURE OF GOVERNMENT

Experts in Municipal Government.—One of the important lines along which the National Municipal League is doing constructive work is an investigation and report upon the feasibility of putting and keeping in expert hands the administrative departments of city government (streets, parks, water supply, etc.), requiring technical knowledge and skill. The desirability does not need any argument; the historical reasons why in our American cities these departments have been kept in "politics" are well known; the fact that in spite of putting the subordinate positions in these departments under a civil service law and rules the controlling policy of the department is the service of "political" ends is unfortunately glaringly true; the waste and inefficiency caused by frequent changes in the heads of such departments have been demonstrated again and again. What is urgently needed is to find some feasible method through which American cities can find a way to take these departments from top to bottom out of "politics" and make them the efficient administrative servants of the city's interests.

This subject is one in which the National Civil Service Reform League and the National Municipal League are equally interested, although approaching it from different angles. These two organizations have therefore united their efforts in a joint committee: Clinton Rogers Woodruff, of Philadelphia, chairman; Robert Catherwood, chairman, Chicago Civil Service Reform Association; Elliot H. Goodwin, secretary, National Civil Service Reform League; William Dudley Foulke, Richmond, Ind., president, National Municipal League and formerly federal civil service commissioner; Richard Henry Dana, Boston, chairman, Council of the National Civil Service Reform League; Horace E. Deming, Esq., New York, former chairman of the executive committee of the National Municipal League, and Stiles P. Jones, Minneapolis, secretary, Minneapolis Voter's League.

To assist this committee in its deliberations and in reaching a conclusion, the National Municipal League has retained Mr. Arthur Dexter Brigham, of Harvard, to gather information from American and European cities as to what officials may reasonably be called 'experts'; just what civil service regulations (if any) apply to their appointment; whether these experts have remained in office permanently or have changed with each new administration; and what tends to make them permanent if such is the case. He is also seeking to ascertain what the sentiment of administrators, students and publicists is as to whether the higher city experts should change with each new administration or should be permanent, and as to whether the mayor should have the sole power of appointing them or a civil service commission should investigate their qualifications, partly by looking into their past experiences.

A preliminary report from the committee was presented to the National Municipal League at its annual meeting in Richmond, November 13 to 16, and to the annual meeting of the National Civil Service Reform League held a month later later.

The Financial Downfall of Lawrence, Mass.—The city of Lawrence, Massachusetts, brought to the verge of bankruptcy by ten years of mismanagement and graft in its municipal administration, is putting its hope for the future in a new form of government to be inaugurated in January. The causes of the political corruption, leading to this transformation, are not far to seek.

Within its area of less than nine square miles are located many of the largest mills in New England, employing a large proportion of the city's 86,000 population. The rapid growth of the factory industry has caused an influx of foreign elements which has resulted in the removal of many of the property owning citizens to the adjoining towns of Methuen, Andover and North Andover. Of the 19,000 assessed polls, 16,000 never pay a poll tax, while only 4,000 pay a property tax, consequently a large majority of the voters had nothing immediate to lose but something to gain by keeping in power the corrupt administration which did not enforce collection. A notorious under-valuation of mill property helped to still the remonstrance of that class of heavy taxpayers. The $12 per $1,000 valuation tax limit provision of the state law was evaded by keeping the annual budget, prepared by the finance committee, consisting of the mayor, board of aldermen and common council, within the letter of the law, while overdrafts for the several departments progressively increased from $48,000 in 1906, to $205,000 in 1910. The tax levy was kept down by bonding the future for a large share of these overdrafts till the city passed its debt limit and Boston bankers refused in September, 1911, to certify a new loan of $175,000. Thus there has been a fair field for favoritism in awarding contracts, for overcharges in the purchase of supplies and for systematic robbery of the treasury through loose methods of bookkeeping which has been taken advantage of to the fullest extent. The present administration has been able to maintain the integrity of the city during the past ten months only through the advance by taxpayers of $600,000 of taxes before due, at 5 per cent discount.

Publicity was given the corrupt financial situation about two years ago by the conviction on charges of bribery and graft of the Republican Mayor, White, and two associates, who are now serving jail sentences. The present Democratic Mayor, Cahil, and his administration seem to inspire so little confidence in the people that a delegation of leading citizens, in August, appealed to the Governor to get authorization from the legislature for the appointment of a commission to manage the affairs of the city for ten years.

The *Boston Common*, under date of August 19, assigns the city's present fiscal condition to absentee ownership and evasion of civic responsibility; corrupt and unscrupulous organization of liquor dealers controlling both political machines; indolence and selfish indifference of citizens, accentuated by partisan feeling and race and religious prejudice; official incompetence, and the mutual distrust pervading all classes of the citizenship. Special Auditor, F. B. Cherrington, engaged to audit the books of the city for a six-year period just passed, in a preliminary report, attributes the present condition largely to the continuance of old-fashioned methods, administered by partisan appointees; errors in posting and failure to collect taxes, and sums up the situation in these words: "Unintelligent budget making, overdrawn appropriations, laxity of purchasing methods, incomplete receiving records, inadequate checking of vouchers, unbusinesslike collection of accounts due the city, and tardy and incomplete financial reports."

At the last election, November 7, the voters of the city repealed the old charter and adopted a new one, known as Plan II, by a larger majority. This vote was in accordance with an act of the legislature approved in June, making provision for this change. The new charter provides for a commission form of government including a city council consisting of a mayor and five aldermen, and a school committee of four members and the mayor, all elected at large for two years. These are the only elective offices. The following provisions are inserted: preliminary election for nominations, no party designation on ballots, general meeting of registered voters on petition of 500 of said voters, the recall, initiative and referendum on petition of 25 per cent of voters at last election, publicity of contracts and public approval of franchises.[1]

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Civil Service Standardization in Chicago.—Under the parks civil service law which went into force in Chicago last July, there was established for each of the Chicago parks a civil service board consisting of two park commissioners and a third member known as the superintendent of employment. Edwin O. Greifenhagen, formerly connected with the efficiency division of the Chicago civil service commission, was selected as the superintendent of employment of the South Park. In coöperation with the other members of the board and representatives of the Chicago Civil Service Reform Association, Mr. Greifenhagen formulated an exceedingly interesting standardization of employment, grading of service and recording of efficiency. Under the system, the service of South Park is arranged in nine classes, including professional, foreman, clerical, instruction, attendant, police, operating engineer, skilled and unskilled labor groups. Each group is in turn divided into grades corresponding to the character of the duties of the positions, including even the lowest grade of positions which do not involve the exercise of independent judgment. The titles of all positions under the service are chosen with a view to indicating as nearly as possible the duties of the office.

The records of efficiency consist of monthly markings, the subjects and factors of which are such "as will indicate fairly the quantity and quality of service rendered." Reports from departments are to be made to the board by superior officers designated by the board, which has power to investigate the efficiency of any officer or employee. A promotion system is established, eligibility for promotion being limited to persons who have served for at least six months in the next lower grade, except in the police service which imposes a requirement of at least two years; seniority and efficiency are made part of the promotion examination.

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The Civil Service Commission and the Courts in Chicago.—In the course of a special investigation in regard to the relations alleged to exist between the police of Chicago and the gambling and social evils of that city, conducted by the civil service commission under a special appropriation by the mayor and council of Chicago, it was contended by the attorney for the defendants that as the evidence was collected and presented by a special counsel employed by the commission, the commission was acting both as prosecutor and judge and consequently an appeal to the courts would be made. The Chicago *Record Herald* in an editorial October 16 commented upon this intended resort to the courts in cases before the civil service commission as follows:

"The civil service act was passed and eagerly adopted by the people of Chicago because of a deep and strong good government sentiment. The law is a merit law; it does not vest property rights in employees; it is not a law to protect dishonest and incompetent employees; it is a law to protect the city against such employees, and to enable her to get rid of them, after fair and efficient trial. The merit commission has certain powers and must follow prescribed methods. Those who comcomplain of its action in a given case must allege and prove abuse of power, departure from lawful procedure, usurpation. Opinions, however, are not facts. To say that the commission was prejudiced and unfair, or governed by political motives, is to express mere conclusions and the courts cannot reverse the commission on lawyers' conclusions, even when they are sincere."

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[1] From George G. Sampson.

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The Short Ballot in New Jersey and Wisconsin and Colorado.—The Democratic party in New Jersey at its October convention adopted a plank favoring a constitutional amendment which would require that members of the lower house of the legislature be chosen from districts instead of from counties as at present. This would mean a decided shortening of the ballot in large counties like Essex, in which Newark is situated where the number of representatives voted for on a single ballot is eleven.

An interesting report of the Voters League of Wisconsin analyzes the general principles of the short ballot and lays down lines for its definite application to Wisconsin cities. Incidentally the report says: "The short ballot movement is considered by the League the most important single agency for a more efficient democracy which is now before the public and heartily recommends its careful consideration by all citizens."

Here is the League's platform of principles for cities: Elect as few public officers as may be properly done, and appoint all others; elect only policy determining officials, and provide for the appointment of administrative officers by those elected; elect not more than five officials at any one time; and in cities and counties, no candidate should be called upon to make an appeal to a constituency of over 5000 voters.

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Senator Penrose on a New Charter for Philadelphia.—The suggestion of U. S. Senator Penrose, made in a remarkable interview shortly before the recent mayoralty defeat of the Republican organization in Philadelphia, that the State legislature abolish the present system in Philadelphia and substitute for it a form of government in which a small commission of nine members would assume the duties of the councils and work in conjunction with the mayor, has aroused great local interest and discussion, meeting with commendation in some influential directions and strong disapproval in others. The suggestion contemplates leaving intact the present system of executive departments, but hints at a possible curtailment of the powers of the mayor. The national Republican leader of Pennsylvania said he believed that such a form of government will ultimately be put in force in Philadelphia, but spoke also of alternate plans to remedy the existing unsatisfactory councilmanic system by debarring office holders from serving as councilmen, by a reduction in the number of wards, thereby reducing the size of the select and common councils, and by the election at large of a small select council. He expressed the hope that the change would be carefully considered by all the citizens before the next regular session of the legislature.

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The Recall in Boston.—Under Boston's new charter,[1] the mayor is elected for four years. State elections are held each year in Massachusetts and the charter provides that at the state election which occurs in the middle of the mayor's term of office there shall be printed upon the ballots the proposition: "Shall the mayor be recalled." If fifty per cent of the registered vote of the city is cast in the affirmative, the mayor is required to stand for reëlection at a recall election to be held immediately after the State election. On November 7 the total vote for governor in the city was 78,878; the total registered vote of the city, 110,000, and the total vote on the question of recalling the mayor, 69,836. A hard fight was made by the enemies of Mayor Fitzgerald to recall him, but only 37,000 votes were cast for the recall election, or 18,000 short of the total required under the charter. In the words of the Kansas City *Star*: "The Boston election proves, also, that the public official who makes good need not fear the recall, even if he offends the politicians and the men who want to use his office for personal gain. He can trust the people when he knows the people can trust him."

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[1] Adopted in 1909.

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Municipal Managers in Oregon.—Eugene, Oregon proposed a commission to consist of five unpaid members, who should be responsible merely for the general policy of the city, the actual administration being conducted by an administrative manager to be appointed by the commission. This officer was to hold during the pleasure of the commission and have the power to appoint and fix the salaries of subordinates, subject to the approval of the city fathers. The proposed system was identical with the one introduced in the New York Legislature by the Board of Trade of Lockport. It was submitted as an alternative with a regular commission plan, but neither was adopted.

In Portland a plan of government has been put forth under the title "The Short Charter." This includes the city manager idea. It also lays out a scheme of proportional representation in the selection of members of the commission, and preferential voting for the mayor and auditor.

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Recall Provision.—Sacramento's recall provision is unusual in that the question presented to voters is the simple one of the removal of the officer. In case of an affirmative vote on the question of removal, the other members of the commission appoint a successor to fill the office until the next annual election. In case a majority of the board are removed at one time, the city clerk fills the vacancies temporarily, but he must call an election within three days for the purpose of filling the vacancies permanently. Modesto's charter has a similar provision. Hereafter but one commissioner a year is to be elected. Thus a real short ballot is secured. There is a suggestion that the adoption of the charter be contested.

*

Committee of Fifty. Baltimore's Committee of Fifty delegated its powers to a sub-committee of seventeen, consisting of the nine members of the old charter commission and eight others; and this body has approved amendments to abolish party designations and party nominations for municipal offices, imitating the Boston Charter in these respects, and to have the new charter operative in 1913, thus cutting Mayor Preston's term of office down to two years. It is expected that they will also introduce a "re-call" feature, but with the requirement of so large a number of signatures as to make it probably ineffective.

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Mayor Gaynor for Commission Government.—In an address at the annual convention of the Atlantic Deeper Waterways Association, held in Baltimore, in October, Mayor W. J. Gaynor of New York City expressed the opinion that the commission form of government is one of the best means of remedying the predicaments of cities laboring under a load of governmental perplexities. He said:

"The days of bi-councilmanic form of city government are rapidly drawing to a close, because they have passed the stage of usefulness. The simpler form of government is bound to be of greater advantage."

*

A Shorter Ballot in Pennsylvania.—A step in the direction of a shorter ballot was taken in Pennsylvania when Governor Tener in June signed an act providing for the election of one person to fill the offices of prothonotary, clerk of the court of quarter sessions, and clerk of the court of oyer and terminer, and one other person to fill the offices of register of wills, recorder of deeds, and clerk of the orphan's court, in counties of over 30,000 inhabitants. Heretofore these offices have been filled by different individuals.

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Change in Detroit Civil Service.—In accordance with the power vested in cities by an amendment of the home rule act passed by the Michigan legislature during the session of 1911, the common council of Detroit unanimously voted in September to submit to the electors at the next general election an amendment to the city charter placing all matters pertaining to the civil service in the hands of a commission of four members to be appointed by the mayor, not more than two of whom are to be members of the same political party.

⁂

New Syllabus of Examinations.—The British National Association of Local Government Officers,[1] comprising 28,000 professional municipal administrators, has prepared through its examination committee a new syllabus of examinations for positions in the classified municipal service. This is reprinted in the London *Municipal Journal* for October 28, 1911.

⁂

Italian Municipal Code.—A new set of instructions, regulating the administration of the municipal and provincial code of Italy, has been issued by royal decree of Feb. 12, 1911. The new regulations supersede the regulations issued on Sept. 19, 1899.

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Burlington, Vt.—W. J. Van Patten of Burlington, Vt.,[2] has published a suggestive pamphlet on proposed changes in the charter of that city, based largely upon the program of the National Municipal League.

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Pueblo, Colorado, has adopted a new charter providing for five commissioners to be elected on the preferential system.

II. FUNCTIONS

A New Plan for a Dual Water-Supply.—The apparent economic waste due to providing bacterially pure water for for all municipal and private purposes when only a small portion of it is so used as to be a menace to health has led to many propositions for a dual public water-supply, one for potable and one for non-potable purposes. Few modern cities have established such a dual supply and where private corporations have tried the plan, as in mills or factories, disaster has generally followed, because most people will drink the water that is handiest, coolest or clearest, quite regardless of warnings that one supply is unsafe and the other safe.

A novel scheme for a dual water-supply, designed to meet all hygienic requirements, was proposed at the monthly meeting of the New England Water Works Association, held in Boston in November. The plan, which was propounded by Prof. Wm. T. Sedgwick, of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, and H. P. Letton, an engineer under the New Jersey State board of health, included a small special supply of water for drinking and culinary purposes and a large denatured supply for all other purposes. The special supply, being small in quantity, might be found much nearer a city than could a large supply of high grade, and in any event could readily be subjected to whatever degree of purification might be required. The large supply could be taken from any convenient near-by source which afforded water of quantity and character suited to industrial purposes. Denaturization with a relatively large application of hypochlorite of calcium, a harmless compound now widely used in minute quantities to treat potable water, would give the water such a taste and odor as to warn against using it for drinking and cooking, and at the same time kill all possible disease germs which the water might contain.

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[1] Frank E. Ginn, Secretary, 50, Ludgate Hill, E. C., London.

[2] Free Press Printing Company, Burlington.

Statistics indicate that three to five gallons per capita per day would be sufficient for the supply of potable and culinary water, but to be safe ten gallons might be allowed. To prevent waste of the drinking water and to meet its cost, it would be sold by meter measurement, at a relatively high cost.

This dual water-supply plan was not put forward for universal adoption, but to meet some of the specially difficult water problems of today and for more general adoption later on.

Taken by itself, the plan would apparently give good sanitary results, provided every householder could be compelled to take both kinds of water. If allowed a choice between the two kinds, and not at the same time compelled to abandon dangerous shallow wells in house yards, various unfortunate results might be produced. To name only two: the cheaper, more plentiful supply might be taken and the other left, and consequently polluted wells be continued in use; or the potable water alone might be chosen and thus no plentiful supply be available for bath tubs and water closets. The latter outcome would necessitate the continuance of privies, with their dangers from flies and typhoid.

From the economic or financial viewpoint, the dual supply would present apparently grave difficulties. The first cost of two water-works plants and two sets of house piping and fixtures would be much higher, in most cases, than the cost of a single system.

It should be remembered, finally, that the dual supply question was revived largely for the purpose of presenting new aspects resulting from changed conditions, particularly the safety now possible through denaturizing and at the same time disinfecting water not intended for potable use. Under occasional abnormal conditions such a dual supply as was outlined might prove to be of great sanitary and economic advantage, but no one should advocate its adoption without a thoroughgoing investigation of first and annual costs, nor without taking into account possible resulting complications.

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The Meaning of Proposed Changes in Sewage Disposal at Chicago.—No one should be misled by assertions that because sewage purification plants have been recommended by Chief Engineer Wisner, of the sanitary district of Chicago, therefore the big drainage canal is a failure. This canal was opened on January 1, 1900, after many years of work and millions of expense. In conjunction with intercepting sewers it diverts the sewage of Chicago and adjacent territory from Lake Michigan southward through the Des Plaines and Illinois Rivers to the Mississippi, at the same time reversing the flow of the Chicago River at all but high-water stages. The canal has been a great protection to the water-supply of Chicago, which is drawn from Lake Michigan through various intake tunnels leading to intake cribs some distance from the shore. The canal has also relieved intolerable nuisances of long standing in the Chicago River and its branches.

Mr. Wisner's recommendation for sewage purification at Chicago arises from the fact that the rapid increase in the population of Chicago will soon require more diluting water than the federal government will allow the Sanitary District to draw from Lake Michigan. Therefore the burden on the diluting water must be lessened by removing a portion of the contaminating matter in the sewage. A choice may be made between purifying all the sewage slightly

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[1] From M. N. Baker.

or a portion of it to a relatively high degree. Present indications are that the latter will be the more economical plan, and one that will give good sanitary results.

Mr. Wisner proposes settling and sludge- (solids) reducing tanks of the Imhoff type, supplemented where and when necessary by percolating or sprinkling filters. The tanks would remove considerable portions of the solid organic matter from the sewage by sedimentation and would reduce this sludge in bulk by the action of anaërobic bacteria.[1] The sludge could then be further reduced in volume by drying, after which the choice of final disposal would be from one of several possible plans. Such of the partly purified sewage or effluent from the Imhoff tanks as required further purification would be passed through percolating or sprinkling filters. These, through the action of aërobic bacteria, would still further reduce the organic matter in the sewage and would leave the latter in a stable or non-putrefactive condition. A portion of the organic matter thus being kept out of the canal, the natural oxidizing powers of the diluting water would be able to deal with the sewage.

The Chicago Drainage Canal was carefully designed originally to maintain a balance between the volume of sewage which it carried and the oxidizing power of the diluting water. To the extent that such a plan succeeds the results are as truly scientific sewage treatment as when some artificial process is adopted. Among engineers, the Chicago plan is known as sewage disposal by dilution, and this, as already intimated, is often as proper a means of sewage disposal as can be found—as it generally is by far the cheapest.

Laymen generally, and for that matter not all engineers, do not realize that sewage purification is relative and not absolute, and that nearly all the sewage purification plants, the world over, are being operated to prevent offensive odors and not to produce an effluent which can safely be turned into water used for drinking purposes. Such, however, is the case.[2]

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New York Municipal Budget Exhibit.—The second budget exhibit of New York City was thrown open to the public on October 1 and continued throughout the month. In many ways it showed improvements over the one of the previous year. Not only was the general arrangement of the exhibits better, but the essential budgetary facts were less subordinated to the physical exhibits themselves. One of the most interesting phases of the exhibition was that of the finance department which displayed a series of rectangular geometrical models representing the cost of operating the departments of city government by gilded cubes and the increases asked for in 1912 budget by purple cubes. The largest cube represented the total budget expense of $174,000,000 for 1911. Allied to this was the striking exhibit of the commissioner of accounts, showing the results of his various researches by means of a large ledger of placards turned by an attendant and lighted by a searchlight.

By charts, placards, photographs and models, the problems of street pavement, sewerage and water supply were graphically represented and illustrated. One exhibit of the Brooklyn bureau of highways showed a reduction in the cost of maintaining asphalt pavements by a municipal asphalt plant from nearly seven cents per square yard to less than three cents. Plans of the Metropolitan sewerage commission for a general sewerage system for the whole city to cost $150,000,000 were shown, and details and pictures explaining the purification of the Gowanus canal in Brooklyn, probably the biggest improvement during the year, and many other phases of the sewerage question were shown by numerous bureaus. Construction photographs of the board of water supply and models of Croton dam formed an exceedingly fine collection. The high pressure bureau was represented by ingenious models showing the difference in height and quantity of water thrown by ordinary hydrant pressure, by steam fire engine and by high pressure service. Lighting was demonstrated in a number of ways, and the fire, street cleaning and police departments showed appropriate exhibits of device improvements.

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[1] Anaërobic bacteria work in the absence of air; aërobic in its presence.

[2] From M. N. Baker.

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Clean-up Crusades.—On November 8, Mayor Keller of St. Paul ordered a general cleaning up of the city and directed the citizens to do everything possible to remove unsanitary conditions. The same day was set aside by Governor Eberhart of Minnesota for conducting a special campaign in the state against the causes of fire, and the result of both campaigns was evident in improved conditions.

Last fall a general campaign for a cleaner and more healthful city was started in New Orleans by the executive committee of the Progressive Union of that city. A strong appeal was made to the citizens to assist, and thousands of pamphlets, briefly stating the provisions of the garbage, street cleaning, sanitation and other ordinances of the city, telling the householders what they are required to do and what they are prohibited from doing, were distributed. The clergy, the teachers and pupils of the public schools and even the moving picture shows were drawn into the service of the campaign.

The city waste committee of the Woman's Chicago City Club has been conducting a vigorous campaign for a better disposal of the city's waste and has been urging that the present inadequate system depending upon several departments of municipal administration be centralized under a commission. The committee has rendered valuable assistance to the departments by issuing in several languages to foreign householders cards of instruction relative to the proper disposal of waste. For the same purpose, a sanitary instructor, able to talk several languages has been going directly to the homes in some districts to promote sanitary conditions.

⁂

Chicago Plans.—Chicago now has a civic beauty commission, appointed by the mayor in September, the chairman of which is Alderman Joseph F. Ryan. Its first energy has been directed against the poles which support the trolley wires, electric lights and conveyors of electricity in the city, and a strong effort is being made by the commission to enforce a uniform and more artistic type for them. In an article in the Chicago *Examiner*, Mr. John W. Mabbs predicts that the time will come when the ships of the world will dock at Chicago and proposed the construction of an outer harbor by means of a sea wall or breakwater about a mile and half from the shore, to extend when complete from Evanston to a point beyond the Calumet River, with piers or wharves located on the inner side of the breakwater and connected by means of tunnels with the different railway systems. He estimates that the cost of this improvement could be covered by $10,000,000. The rapid growth of the city of Chicago is reflected in the large outlay for highways and parks which now amounts to about $10,000,000 a year. In 1880 only about 200 miles of city streets were paved. Today there are about 2900 miles of highways, more than half of which are paved, and this total is extended at the average rate of ten miles per annum.

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Civic Improvement in Kansas City.—In October, the City Club of Kansas City in coöperation with the Commercial Club, the Medical Society, the Municipal Art League, the Real Estate Exchange, and other civic organizations of that city, launched an enthusiastic and energetic campaign for a civic center, better public buildings, better streets, more playgrounds, better transportation facilities and a more attractive city.

An agitation was started also toward securing for the city power to establish building zones and to control its streets to the extent of creating building restrictions along them. The intention is that such control would insure to the citizens buying a home an investment protected against the encroachment of buildings that would mar the neighborhood and thus destroy the value of the home. It is claimed that if a citizen secured a location upon a street designated by the city as a residence street, with restrictions as to what kind of residences could be built thereon, he could improve the property, add to its beauty, and continue his investment with the assurance of permanency.

⁂

Civic Commission in Minneapolis.—A civic commission in Minneapolis of eleven members with William H. Dunwoody, Esq., as chairman has been created. It has engaged the services of Edward H. Bennett and D. H. Burnham of Chicago. Two features of the plans of the commission are particularly noteworthy. The first is a system of great diagonal highways, crossing at the center of the city. Of the four avenues forming this system, two already exist, a third has been definitely ordered by the city council, and the fourth, which will traverse the residential district of the city, is planned as a magnificent boulevard stretching from the business center to the shores of Lake Harriet. The other feature is a series of streets which will be connected to form an irregular ring of six or eight miles in circuit around the closely built up business district of the city to enable the traffic to go around the congested area instead of through it. As the encircling boulevard will intersect streets in densely populated districts, many neighborhood parks are included in the plan.

Comprehensive Plans in Philadelphia.—In Philadelphia, an ordinance went into force last July making it the duty of the mayor to supervise and carry into effect plans for the future development of the city; providing for the appointment and regulating the powers, duties and procedure of a permanent committee to advise, assist and coöperate with him; and granting an appropriation. The subjects for consideration by the committee extend to improvement in railroad and transportation facilities, river and harbor improvements, municipal auditorium and assembly centers, new parks, parkways, boulevards, radial avenues, location of new manufacturing sites and the promotion of Latin-American trade. The committee is to consist of the mayor ex-officio; the city controller, the presidents of select and common councils, the president of the Fairmount Park Commission, the chairman of the finance committee of councils, and ten citizens appointed by the mayor for a term of seven years. G. W. B. Hicks, was appointed as the executive head of the committee by Mayor Reyburn.

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Civic League of St. Louis.—The St. Louis Civic League through its various committees, is engaged upon a comprehensive attempt to bring about improvements in the civil service, an elimination of unnecessary noises, a limitation of overhead signs, extension of the underground wire district, a higher standard of housing and sanitation, and a higher standard of milk supply. To further these ends ward committees have been organized in the various wards of the city for the purpose of studying local needs and holding public meetings to inspire the interest of the people and to stimulate suggestions respecting means and methods to improve conditions. A vigorous agitation is in progress for a closer coöperation and civic union among the thirty-two associations giving attention to the improvement of civic affairs through the creation of a central council.

The movement was inaugurated by a committee appointed jointly by the Civic League, the Federation of Civic Organizations and the Affiliated Improvement Associations.

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Municipal Management of Food Supplies.—If Mayor Speer of Denver successfully carries out his plans, the citizens of his city will have no reason to complain about the profits that go to middlemen who supply them with foodstuffs. Mayor Speer is conducting a vigorous campaign to have a municipal market established.

The high cost of living recently led to the investigation of the city market in Indianapolis by a citizen's committee. It was reported that farmers and producers had been generally supplanted by regular grocers and commission men. The mayor sent a message to the council with recommendations looking to restoring the market to its old use as a place for direct meeting between producers and consumers. In the meantime the mayor has imported many carloads of potatoes and sold them at cost in the city market, with the result of greatly lowering the price of this article in groceries and commission houses.

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A London Municipal House.—In an article in the *Municipal Journal*, Mr. H. E. Blain called attention to the increase in the number and vitality of organizations that are assisting the various departments of local government in London as an indication of the great activity and progress in municipal government work, and proposed that the organizations and societies associated with the various departments of the local government establish a London headquarters in a suitably located building, with separate offices, but a common library, a conference hall and club rooms. The proposal has created a great deal of interest in London municipal circles and has started a movement for a "Municipal House" which has not only the hearty support of the local government officials, but also the active coöperation of the organizations and societies themselves. The prospect of an early realization of this proposal is hopeful.

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City Plan Association in Albany.—Last spring all of the civic bodies of the city of Albany joined in a coöperative movement to secure a city plan for Albany and organized the Albany City Plan Association. All members of the affiliated societies are members of the new association and its board of governors is made up of two representatives from each of the affiliated societies, two members appointed by the governor of the State and three by the mayor of Albany. The Association has prepared an ordinance providing for the appointment by the mayor of a city plan commission of seven members whose duty it shall be to employ experts to prepare a comprehensive plan for the development of the city. A company has been organized with $100,000 capital to build model cottages for working men, and it expects to erect about 100 six-room cottages each of which will be detached and provided with a garden and lawn.

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The Des Moines' Civic Center.—Des Moines has the distinction of being the first city in America to realize ideas of a beautiful city on a relatively generous scale. Her "civic center," covering a space of four blocks long and three wide on both banks of the Des Moines river in the heart of the town, is now nearly completed. Four bridges have been thrown across the river, and five buildings, surrounded by beautiful parks and walks, will complete the plan. A library, a coliseum and a post office have have been built and a city hall is nearing completion. Plans for an art institute are now being made. The success of the undertaking shows that the people of Des Moines have done things under the commission form of government.

Municipal Functions in Europe.—The London *Municipal Journal*, in referring to the French Government's Bill proposing to authorise the municipalities to lend money for the establishment of local coöperative butchers' and bakers' shops, and to establish such shops under municipal control with an administrator or tenant to whom funds are to be advanced, says:

"These are large proposals, and democracy in these days is moving rapidly and striking boldly. Five years ago we nearly had municipal coal mines because an attempt was made to form a ring to command prices and regulate wages. Let it be well understood we are not advocating municipal bakeries and municipal butcheries, but we do advocate municipal shops for the supply of the equipment and accessories of enterprises that are already owned and commercially operated by local authorities."

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An Encircling Boulevard for Washington.—The commissioners of Washington have formed plans for the construction of a boulevard which will circle the city and will connect the old fortifications about the national capital. To connect all of the forts it will be necessary to build the road in coöperation with Maryland and Virginia. The appropriation to be sought from Congress will not be so large in amount as might be supposed because many sections of the road are already built and will be merely incorporated in the scheme.

Billboards in Washington are not to be erected, according to an order issued in October by the commissioners, except upon the premises where the entertainment, exhibition or business is conducted, although billboards now erected may be used until the commissioners deem their removal necessary or desirable.

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Seattle's Port Commission and Street Railway Line.—In accordance with a law enacted by the last Washington legislature empowering cities to establish port districts and elect port commissioners having wide powers to acquire, regulate and control docks and port facilities, Seattle has elected a port commission, and Mr. R. G. Thomson, who has been city engineer since 1892, was appointed the engineer of the new commission. Also, owing to the unsatisfactory service given by one transit company, this city has voted bonds to the amount of $700,000 for the purchase, by condemnation proceedings, of the street railway line of the company.

⁂

Coördinating Social and Philanthropic Agencies in New Haven.—The section on social and industrial conditions of the New Haven Civic Federation is endeavoring to supplement the work of the charity organizations in that city by bringing into closer touch the various social and philanthropic agencies who do not directly dispense charity. It was discovered by the League that agencies were duplicating endeavors because of a lack of information as to what each other was doing. The Civic Federation also engaged at its own expense a visiting housekeeper whose duty it is to go directly to homes and demonstrate the principles of household economics.

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Mayor Fitzgerald of Boston, who was a member of the Boston chamber of commerce party, which visited Europe last summer, is deeply impressed with the municipal experiments which he saw in Germany, and in an address before the Municipal Congress Exposition at Chicago in September, 1911, printed in *The American City* for October, he urges that wise leaders in the United States should profit by the example of the Germans and remove our evils "not by mere palliative measures but by striking at their roots in the social conditions which breed them."

⁂

Planning in Portland Oregon.—Since the organization of the Civic Improvement League of Portland the work of comprehensive planning in Portland has gone steadily forward. Mr. E. H. Bennett of Chicago was secured as civic architect and he has completed a series of extensive plans. A new post-office building has been appropriately located, and a new municipal auditorium, for which bonds amounting to $600,000 were issued last June, will soon be in the course of construction.

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Australia's New Capitol.—The commonwealth of Australia has opened to the citizens of all countries the competition for the plan of the new city capitol, to be located in New South Wales. The competition ends on January 31, 1912, and substantial prizes will be given. The growth of this new city, unhampered by the perplexing difficulties which beset those who attempt to reconstruct old urban centers, will be watched with deep interest by students of municipal government everywhere.

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Spokane's Example.—Spokane, Washington, is providing inclined planes in the place of stairways in the new public school building, thus setting an example to all the cities of the United States in safeguarding the lives of school children against fire panics.

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Utica Municipal League.—The Utica Municipal League is working up a scheme for an associated charities. Like most other places the city has many charitable organizations, but in the past there has been little or no coöperation among them.

III. POLITICS[1]

New York.—One also speaks with hesitancy about the Gaynor administration. A year ago Mayor Gaynor was on the crest of a wave of popularity. Now for months past the question in New York has been: "What is the matter with Gaynor?" His action in connection with the charter has been an insoluble mystery to the city.[2] In the words of a correspondent: "Gaynor remains the sphinx in our city government. His action in several matters has been strong and effective. I had a talk of an hour and a half not long ago with him regarding police affairs; and he showed the clearest and ablest grasp of police problems of any man with whom I have talked in recent years regarding that subject. His recent appointment of Rhinelander Waldo places in office the best equipped man for police commissioner whom we have ever had." On the other hand he has been not only vigorously attacked because of his connection with the Tammany Gaynor charter, but because of sundry other causes he is generally regarded as having used his great powers to block the satisfactory solution of the subway situation, both in the board of estimate and apportionment and outside.

On the other hand, the mayor's colleagues in the board of estimate and apportionment, at least those of them that were elected on the fusion ticket two years ago as the result of the uprising of the New York electorate and of the militancy which it then displayed, continue to make good.

The Citizens Union committee on the board of aldermen of New York City published a special report on the board for 1910–1911 term. This report follows the report of the Union on the work of the legislature at Albany. It gives a general survey of the important measures before the board, the treatment of these respective measures, tables showing the vote of the aldermen on the significant measures and individual records of the aldermen. This report has done a great deal to stimulate public interest in the board of aldermen, which in recent years had been sadly declining in public esteem, apparently on account of the curtailment of its powers, and particularly on account of the low standards maintained by a number of members, and unquestionably had a strong influence in defeating a large number of undesirable candidates for election. Although stripped of its most important positive powers, the board possesses a negative influence in the government of the city, and by threatening to reduce items in the budget proposed by the board of estimate and apportionment, its members have been able to wrest from the heads of departments a considerable share of the patronage. The report of the Citizens Union expressly declared that there was ground for the belief that the board had acted as a clog in the city governments, so that "the power of the political district organizations may be increased and department heads compelled to yield to their recommendations in order to obtain apportionments to carry on the work of their respective governments." The tables given by the report seem to substantiate this claim. The committee also took the board to task for refusing to exercise its important functions for investigating certain branches of the city administration in the interests of efficiency and economy. From the individual records published in the report every voter was able to discover how many meetings of the board his alderman had attended and the measures he introduced and how he voted on measures of particular public importance. The Republicans and Fusionists secured a majority in the Board of Aldermen in the election on November 7.

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[1] Prepared by Clinton Rogers Woodruff.

[2] See article of L. A. Tanzer on "The Tammany-Gaynor Charter." *Supra.*

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San Francisco.—San Francisco made a first trial of the city's new non-partisan election system, September 26 and November 7, with results generally considered satisfactory. Under this system names of candidates go on the ballot without party designation, any candidate getting a majority at the primary is thereby elected, and the two highest go on the ballot for the general election if nobody gets a majority at the primary. Many independent candidates appeared, especially for the eighteen places on the board of supervisors, which is the city legislature. A candidate has but to secure ten electors to take the sponsor's oath, to get his name printed on the primary ballot. No candidate succeeded, however, unless he was backed by a large organization. Six such organizations took part in the contest: the Municipal Conference, the Good Government League, the Republican, Democratic, Union Labor and Socialist parties. The first four combined on James Rolph, Jr., a prominent ship-owner, as a candidate for mayor, and had many other candidates in common. The Union Labor party put forward Mayor McCarthy and a straight ticket. The Socialists named Wm. McDevitt.

A record-breaking vote was cast at the primary, 79,019 as against 63,233 at the election of 1909. Rolph was elected at the primary receiving 47,427 votes, McCarthy 27,067, McDevitt 3858. Two other candidates got a few scattering votes. At the primary, two police judges, a city attorney, assessor, county clerk, treasurer, tax collector, recorder, and public administrator received a majority and were elected. This left for the general election of November 7 a district attorney, auditor, sheriff, coroner and eighteen supervisors. District Attorney Fickert and Ralph Hathorn qualified for the first position. The former was elected two years ago over Francis J. Heney on the issue of stopping the "graft prosecution." The issue is dead but substantially the same elements lined up, Fickert being supported by a combination of the Union Labor and corporation forces. The vote fell off from the September election, the total being

69,668. Fickert was elected, getting 35,072 to 33,467 for Hathorn. Boyle, U. L., beat Lackman, reform candidate for auditor, 36,056 to 31,806. Eggers, V. G. L., R. and D., beat Finn, U. L. for Sheriff, 35,152 to 33,726. A strong board of supervisors pledged to support Rolph was elected. Andrew J. Gallagher, secretary of the Labor Council, was the only Union Labor nominee to be elected, although fourteen qualified at the primary.

This is the last election at which so long a ticket will be put before the voters as one-half the offices are henceforth to be filled at each biennial election. The good government forces now have all the offices except district attorney and auditor.

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Los Angeles Election.—The Los Angeles mayoralty campaign attracted very general attention in view of the fact that at the primary on October 31 the socialist candidate held the poll, the vote being Harriman, socialist, 20,157; Alexander, good government, 16,790; Mushet, 8,168. In a total vote of 45,501, Harriman's pluralty was 3,161, but as he was in the minority of 2,594, he was not declared the candidate and a second election was necessary. This was held on December 5 and resulted in the reëlection of Mayor Alexander by a majority estimated at 40,000 in a total vote of 140,880. The campaign was interesting not only because of the result but by reason of the part which the McNamara trial played and especially the part which the women took in the campaign.

In its issue of December 2, three days before the election, the *California Outlook* expressed a thorough confidence that the vote would be for good government by a surprising majority. It gave as its reasons that the good government forces had gained enormously since the primary, while those of the socialists scarcely held their own. The *Outlook* said among other things that public sentiment "went heavily against the socialists in the campaign since the primary on account of their attempts to break up good government meetings by riotous conduct. The American people like fair play. The revelations of extensive fraud in registration, all of it apparently on the socialist side, has been entirely beyond boundary for law-abiding citizens, and the pamphlet issued by the Municipal League answering all the points made by the socialist against the administration, a document of which over 100,000 were circulated, helped to clear the air of doubt and question. It has been a campaign of enlightenment and of thorough organization."

Reporting on the eligibility and records of candidates for councils at the election in October, the Municipal League said:

"We must frankly realize that the standard is not in all cases as high as the needs of the city demand. The compensation allowed by the charter ($100 a month) is totally inadequate to the amount of service that is required, and prevents men from taking up the work strictly upon a business basis; on the other hand, the fact that any salary is paid tends to prevent men from serving as they do on the commissions and board of education, merely for the honor of the place. It is hoped that by the time the next municipal primary occurs our system of government will be on a basis of practical business with a smaller body of responsible councilmen or commissioners who are properly paid for their work."

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Philadelphia.—Naturally the election of Rudolph Blankenburg as mayor of the city on an independent (Keystone) ticket occupies a chief place among the events of the November elections, because of the deeply seated conviction on the part of many that the city was firmly riveted to the dominant national party. Although there were many minor causes coöperating in the result, it represents, in its final analysis, a groundswell on the part of the great mass of the people; for the largest majorities for Mr. Blankenburg were cast in the northeastern part of the city (which is perhaps the greatest industrial community in the whole country) and in the smaller residential districts of West Philadelphia and the northwestern section of the city. Even had Mr. Blankenburg been defeated, his Republican rival was pledged to a definite policy of progressive administration. It was generally conceded that the election, whichever way it went, would mean a step forward for the city. While it is too soon to forecast all the benefits to accrue from Mr. Blankenburg's election, this much can be said—that it will not only represent a breaking up of those conditions which for years have militated against a wholesome administration of the city's affairs, but will cause farreaching political alignments. Moreover, it is generally expected, that as a result of this readjustment new men will come to the front in political affairs, who will represent the modern idea that city administration must be for the benefit of all the people and not for contractors and those seeking privileges and private advantage.

Mayor Blankenberg has met reasonable expectations in regard to the selection of his cabinet. His director of public safety, George D. Porter, is a capable man of considerable experience in public affairs and has on more than one occasion demonstrated his adherence to sound principles in municipal administration. Morris L. Cooke, the director of the department of public works, is an advocate of scientific management and a disciple of Fred W. Taylor. The director of supplies is Herman Loeb, elected some years ago councilman from his ward on the Municipal League ticket. The director of public wharves, docks and ferries is George W. Norris, vice president of the City Club and a member of the Committee of Seventy. As a matter of fact all four of these men have been identified with the old Municipal League, the City Party, Committee of Seventy and other progressive movements in Philadelphia.

Boston.—One speaks with diffidence about Boston. It is difficult to feel that any very great progress can be made under the Fitzgerald leadership. At the same time, it is generally conceded that his present administration is a great improvement over his first one. A correspondent, who is not a Fitzgerald supporter, says: "He has been identifying himself very thoroughly and very earnestly with the growth of the city, and promoting plans for better things. He is unquestionably a man of ability: . . . . environment is very much better than it was before. The new city charter is working admirably. With a single legislative chamber of nine men we have been able to elect men of very much higher type than the average of most years. With the new charter, the mayor is under very strict limitations, especially in the matter of his appointments. Many of these, as you know, have not been approved. I think this has been the weakest point in the administration. He seems too often to have appointed men where political consideration appeared to be predominant."

The result of the last election in Boston was very satisfactory. Two out of the three candidates elected to the city council had received the endorsement of the good government association; and both of the successful candidates to the school committee received the approval of the same organization. A rather interesting feature of the Boston election was the fact that but 57,000 out of a possible 120,000 voted.

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Buffalo.—In a report of the Buffalo Municipal League on the public records of candidates for seats as aldermen and supervisors in the October election, published in the *Express*, it was shown that under the old charter striking evils of the ward system developed, leading to the exploitation by an alderman of ninety-six per cent of the voters living outside of his ward to curry favor with the four per cent living in his ward, and to the temptation to build up a little machine through accepting the patronage of the head of the chief employing and contracting department of the city. By the application of a series of tests to the attitude of candidates toward measures clearly against the public welfare, it was shown that in many wards the voters could choose only between two undesirable candidates.

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Cincinnati.—Cincinnati, for many years the despair not only of its own citizens, but of municipal students generally, by reason of the strong hold which the dominant political organization had upon it, has not only broken the shackles but, far more important still, has elected to the office of mayor, Henry T. Hunt, a man who does not regard his victory either as a partisan or as a personal triumph, but as an opportunity for real service to the whole community. The overwhelming defeat of the local organization it is to be hoped, and it is generally regarded by those in closest touch with the situation, means the eventual elimination of those political factors which heretofore have militated against the development of that city. As mayor-elect Hunt was consulted in the makeup of the ticket of which he was the head his successful colleagues may be depended upon for hearty coöperation.

During the Cincinnati campaign constant reference was made to the fact that Cincinnati which once led Cleveland had fallen to the rear in the race with that community because of the corruption and inefficiency of her government. In other words that Cincinnati had fallen back in the new civic competition between cities.

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Politics and Municipal Elections in Liverpool.—In commenting upon the preparation of English cities for the fall elections, the London *Municipal Journal* said that in the majority of the cities and towns the contest "will be fought on party lines in the same silly way as of yore." Commenting further on the prevailing idea in America that parties play no part in municipal affairs, the *Journal* says: "Mr. Carnegie's delusion of an English system of local government untainted by the usual party cleavages will soon be dispelled and political platforms will be crowded with political persons trying to introduce a political element into matters which have no more concern with polities than they have with the man in the moon. We thought we saw a ray of hope in the *Times* the other day when we caught sight of a paragraph headed 'A Municipal Truce in Liverpool.' The first sentence ran: 'The leaders of the Conservative and Liberal parties in Liverpool have agreed to recommend to their respective ward committees throughout the city that no opposition be offered by either party to the official Conservative or Liberal candidates at the municipal elections.' We suppose the *Times* knows what it means. We confess that we do not, but if the political parties of Liverpool have at last decided to eschew politics at municipal elections, the country should be grateful for their lead."

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Pittsburgh.—Pittsburgh has had satisfactory overhauling, partly through the coöperation of the Pennsylvania legislature,[1] partly through the coöperation of the people themselves. Under the law of 1911 giving a new charter to Pittsburgh including among other things a council of nine elected at large. Governor Tener of Pennsylvania rose to his opportunity and appointed nine men of high personal character and civic attainment to take the place of the council which had disgraced and discredited the city for many years. These nine men so fully met expectation that notwithstanding a vigorous factional fight which broke out in the city, they were supported by both sides and eventually elected by an overwhelming vote; thus assuring to the city a continuance of the excellent administration they had already inaugurated.

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[1] See Department of Legislation, *infra*.

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Cleveland.—Newton D. Baker, for a number of years an efficient city solicitor, and probably the most intelligent and effective proponent of Tom Johnson's best ideas, was elected mayor by a large majority over a personally popular Republican candidate. Mr. Baker possesses many qualifications for a successful administrator and, moreover, a personal popularity and charm that will help him over many a rough place. The same may be said of Mr. Blankenburg, whose personality was an important factor in his campaign. It is reasonable to expect that Cleveland, already an admirably managed city, will make new records under Mr. Baker's guidance.

✣

Colorado Springs.—The decline of partisanship under commission government is manifest in Colorado Springs, which, though overwhelmingly Republican in state and national elections, at the recent election returned two Democratic councilmen. In the same city, the failure of the Republican partisan attempt to recall the Democratic mayor gives encouragement to those who advocate its use in municipal affairs and believe that it cannot be successfully invoked for trivial reasons.

✣

Non-Partisan Voting in Ohio.—As the result of the passage of the non-partisan judiciary bill last spring, all over Ohio the names of candidates for judicial offices appeared on a separate ballot without any party designation whatever. For the judicial candidates it will be, as the *Citizens Bulletin* of Cincinnati shows, an unique experience. The weak candidate will no longer have his party to depend upon to carry him through. The law requires that the names on the ticket must rotate. This gives one candidate the chance to be first as many times as any other.

✣

Salt Lake City.—According to a despatch in the Chicago *Post* by a landslide "American" party rule was overturned, the citizens' non-partisan party gaining the opportunity of being the first to set in motion the new commission plan. The "American" party was organized to oppose Mormon control in local affairs, and has been in power since 1905. There is no question that the vote of the woman electors brought out in extraordinary numbers by recent reform agitation was largely responsible for the overthrow of the "American" ticket."

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Rochester.—The Republicans made a clean sweep of all candidates for city offices. The mayor was reëlected by 6700 majority, a greater one than any mayor ever before received. Out of twenty-two aldermen the Republicans elected 19, and out of forty-two supervisors, 36, and yet two years ago this same city overwhelmingly defeated the "boss" when he ran for Congress.

IV. MEETINGS AND ORGANIZATIONS[1]

Social Center Conference.—Doubtless no organization of a similar character was ever inaugurated under more auspicious circumstances than those which attended the launching of the new Social Center Association of America at Madison, Wis., on October 28 after four days of continuous speaking and two business sessions. In the words of E. J. Ward, the first social center engineer of Rochester, now of the Wisconsin University extension division, who had charge of the conference arrangments, the delegates "went to the mat" four times daily. In fact the program, delightful and instructive as it was, had the common fault of nearly all such programs—it was heavily overloaded.

The net results were large and encouraging. The constitution, as adopted, declares the purpose of the Association to be "the promotion and development of an intelligent public spirit through the community use of public school houses and other public buildings for discussion of all public questions, and for wholesome recreational, educational and civic activities." There was no great disagreement on this important paragraph, and what there was, took place in the large omnibus committee which the president was authorized to appoint for consideration and report upon all the business of the meeting. Some few delegates were not sure that a breadth of statement which might include political issues in social center discussions, ought to be adopted; but a large and overwhelming majority took or endorsed the stand that if any subject of discussion was permissible at such centers of exchange in views and ideas, it was the subject of government, which touches so nearly the daily and personal welfare of every human unit in the country; and so the Association stands practically for a revival of the old New England town-meeting "and more also." According to the constitution, the idea underlying the movement is described as follows:

"The social center represents all the people in all those interests which are common to all. It is the people's forum and permanent headquarters for citizenship and neighborly spirit. In it the people come to know one another and how to make their government work. The public school plant now functions only in part. Its present service is parental. The social center makes it also function fraternally. Details of this widened use of the school plant vary with local needs, but its spirit is the Lincoln spirit."

Officers of the League were elected as follows: President, Dr. Josiah Strong of New York; vice-presidents, Frank P. Walsh, Kansas City; George M. Forbes, Rochester, N. Y.; Louis Brandeis, Boston; Chancellor Strong, University of Kansas; secretary, Edward J. Ward; treasurer, George W. Harris of Cincinnati. The secretary will receive no salary. Twenty-four honorary vice-presidents were named, among them Miss Anne Morgan, daughter of J. P. Morgan; Charles Edward Russell, William Allen White, Supreme Court Justice Charles E. Hughes, Senator LaFollette, Governor Woodrow Wilson, W. S. U'Ren, Miss Jane Addams, Mrs. Ella Flagg Young and Miss Mary E. McDowell of Chicago. The University of Kansas will get the next conference, meetings to be divided between the cities of Lawrence and Kansas City, Kansas.

As an indication of the various specific benefits which the promoters of the movement expect will be derived from a wider use of available public buildings, especially schoolhouses, the subjects of five papers read at one of the afternoon sessions, are here given as follows: "The Schoolhouse as a Branch Public Library," "The Schoolhouse as a Local Health

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[1] Except where otherwise indicated these notes were prepared by Roger N. Baldwin, secretary of the St. Louis Civic League, under Dr. Beard's editoiship.—C. R. W.

Office," "The Schoolhouse as an Employment Office," "The Schoolhouse as a Local Art Gallery," "The Schoolhouse as a Branch Legislative Reference Bureau."

A great deal was said at two evening sessions about "what the newspapers of the country cannot do" in the way of continuously misinforming or failing to inform the public as to the real facts about important affairs, and on the other hand as to what they can do if they can be brought or forced, through an educated public opinion, brought about by a free and frequent interchange of thought, to a realization of their opportunities and responsibilities. The experience of Rochester, N. Y., where the first schoolhouses were opened for public discussions, and the lessons learned there, formed the basis of several valuable addresses which guided the conference in its business. Reports from various parts of the country where beginnings in social center work have already been made, were given by men and women who have taken an important part in these beginnings. At the opening session Wednesday evening, the principal speaker was Governor Woodrow Wilson of New Jersey, who made an illuminating address, showing a thorough grasp of the purpose of the gathering, which proved a splendid send-off for the conference. His subject was "the need of citizenship organization." Two other speakers of national reputation during the conference were Governor W. E. Stubbs of Kansas who spoke on "the spirit of Kansas," and U. S. Senator Moses E. Clapp of Minnesota, whose subject was "real democracy."[1]

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The Milwaukee Budget Exhibit.—Few American cities have presented such splendid object lessons of municipal advance as those shown in the "Budget Exhibit" at the Auditorium in Milwaukee during the last week in November. The name, indeed, does it an injustice. It grew out of the fact that the concrete display of work being accomplished and methods used, was, primarily, an illustration of the expense budget that had just been prepared for the coming year. But the name failed to suggest the wealth of display covering every form of municipal administration, which the exhibit revealed. It was an exposition of municipal progress, and one that reflected the greatest credit upon the administration.

The influence of such other great exhibits as the Child Welfare Exhibit of New York and Chicago and the City Planning Exhibition of Philadelphia was plainly evident upon this show. The chart method of portraying facts and the cartoon method introducing the element of humor into serious subjects, were well developed in the various exhibits. And the huge auditorium, which is of such size as to seat seven or eight thousand people, was crowded with the exhibits. Every branch of the city government was represented except the school board, which declined to participate, and the city officials were to be found in the displays of their several departments until late at night, and as much of the time during the day as they could spare from their office duties.

The main aisle opened with the exhibits of the mayor's office on the right and the city clerk's on the left. Comparisons of old and antiquated systems of accounting with modern methods were some of the details of both these exhibits, and a humorous cartoon showing the successive steps in the progress of a bill through the common council—drawn by a high school student—enlivened the walls of the latter. The central place in the exhibit was devoted to work in the campaign against tuberculosis and in the interest of pure foods and drinks. The health department showed a system for the purification of water by injections of ozone into it, which is successfully in operation in St. Petersburg and several German cities, and which may be the solution of the problem of a pure water supply for American cities. New methods whereby the same conduits carry wires for police and fire alarms and for municipal telephones (for the use of city employees) were shown, with an iron post containing the three call boxes on as many sides, and an electric device at the top, for calling a patrolman at night, to be waved from all the posts within his beat until he answers from one of them. The public library and the public museum, both of which in Milwaukee are exceptionally well developed, had interesting displays, the latter showing, among other things, a number of exhibits of tree stumps into which sticks, straws, and other objects had been forced by a cyclone in Rock county less than a month previous to the exhibition. The Milwaukee public museum probably stands first among municipal museums in this country, for which the present superintendent, H. L. Ward, is chiefly responsible; and it is said that the annual attendance at the museum is exceeded only by one in New York, among all American institutions of the sort.

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[1] From Joseph McC. Bell, Secretary of the Voters' League of Milwaukee and representative of the National Municipal League at the Conference.

Concrete examples of different sorts of paving were shown, including several chunks of asphalt that had been taken up from different streets for the purpose, showing the constituent elements of the composition. The coroner's office had a device showing, by lights, the number and character of deaths and accidents reported at his office during each day. A very large exhibit showed deficient weights and measures that had been confiscated at city shops—a sad illustration of how widespread is commercial dishonesty in our day. The "penny lunches," such as are served in a number of our public schools by the "Woman's School Alliance," were also purveyed in a booth to any who made that investment, receiving in return for the one cent as large an amount of nourishing soup with rolls as he or she could consume—thus playing havoc with the spectre of the high cost of living.

And so the enumeration might be continued. The different city departments were simply turned inside out for the inspection of the people, and printed matter telling the details of the work of each, and how it was adapted to serve the people, was liberally circulated. Best of all, everything that might seem to be a comparison of political parties, in their respective administrations of the city, was carefully eliminated. Only in one chart did I observe the terms "this administration" and "former administrations" or their equivalent, and not once a reference to parties by name. Comparisons of cost and of methods were frequently given by years, but no suggestion as to the beginning or the end of administrations or régimes accompanied them.[1]

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Conference on Uniform Schedules.—A conference was held at the Hotel La Salle, Chicago, Illinois, September 26, 27 and 28 for the purpose of securing the greatest practical uniformity in the schedules used by the Bureau of the Census, and by the various state bureaus or offices established for uniform municipal accounting or reporting. The conference was called by the Director of the Census, the Hon. E. Dana Durand, and the following named persons were in attendance: Hon. L. G. Powers, chief statistician of the Census; George C. Bryant, expert special agent, Hon. Joseph T. Tracey, of the Bureau of Inspection and Supervision of Public Offices of the Bureau; and W. A. Dehority, state examiner, Indianapolis, Indiana; Charles F. Gettemy, chief statistician, Bureau of Statistics, Boston; Theodore N. Waddell, Bureau of Statistics, Boston; A. E. James, statistician, Wisconsin Tax Commission; Edmund D. Fisher, assistant comptroller, New York; Duncan MacInnes, comptroller's office, New York; Allan R. Foote, president, International Tax Association, Columbus, Ohio; F. R. Leach, associate director, Bureau of Municipal Research, Cincinnati; U. L. Leonhauser, secretary,

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[1] From Frederic Cook Morehouse.

Metz Fund, New York; John MacVicar, secretary, League of American Municipalities, Des Moines, Iowa; Prof. John A. Fairlie, University of Illinois, Urbana, representing the National Municipal League, Prof. B. M. Rastall, associate director, Milwaukee Bureau of Efficiency and Economy, Milwaukee.

Mr. Powers was chosen chairman of the conference and Mr. Waddell, secretary. The conference held six sessions in all. The Census schedule and classification of expenditures based on the National Municipal League's schedules were made the basis of discussion, which concerned itself principally with the changes that could be made to facilitate their adoption by the various state offices, and to render it possible for the several cities to make prompt use of accounts that would permit the presentation of data classified in accordance with the Census schedules, and by standard units of costs. All present appreciated the fact that the schedules should be so arranged as to facilitate the ready compilation of comparative statistics along the lines hitherto followed by the Bureau of the Census, and the various state offices, and set forth in the program of the National Municipal League. They were equally desirous that the new schedule when formulated should open the way by its use for logical, comparative statistics and accounts to promote the efficiency and economy of the administration of the several offices.

The conference was a working body of earnest, thoughtful and intelligent men, who were striving to reach the same ends in a difficult field, in whose cultivation they were all pioneers. A tentative schedule was adopted, which will receive the careful study of all present and be considered with reference to its adaptability to local state offices. Future conferences were also arranged for. One of these conferences was held in Columbus, October 20, when the schedule, as a result of this series of conferences, was given its final form. A compilation of its provisions and the changes made as compared with earlier schedules will be prepared for the pages of the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW.

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British Tramways Conference.—In September the tenth annual conference of the Municipal Tramways Association of Great Britain was held at Glasgow. Mr. James Dalrymple, general manager of the Glasgow tramways, whose name is well-known in America as the foreign expert consulted some years ago by Mayor Dunne, of Chicago, delivered an address as President of the Association. One of the notable papers read at this conference was on the "Common Good" of Glasgow, by Councillor Walter Nelson, of that city. The Common Good is a sort of general fund, into which certain revenues derived from municipal property are paid and out of which the expenses of certain departments are met. In 1909 an act of Parliament was secured making the Glasgow tramway undertaking a part of the Common Good. A clause in this act provided that the tramway revenues should be expended (1) in maintaining the tramways and the portions of the streets occupied by them in good repair; (2) in paying operating expenses; (3) in providing interest on tramway loans, together with sinking fund charges; and (4) in providing the sum necessary to meet depreciation. Any surplus after providing for the payments just described was to be carried to the credit of the Common Good, to be applied at the discretion of the city to the extinction of debt, the reduction of rates or to any other purpose to which the Common Good might competently be applied. The net revenue accruing to the city from the tramways for the year ending May 31, 1894, the last year under private operation, was £5,660. The average net revenue to the city for the entire period of private operation, from 1871 to 1894, was £2,766. Under municipal operation the net revenue from the tramways credited to the Common Good has increased from £9000 a year at the beginning to £68,678 for the year ending May 31, 1911. The city of Glasgow has never, except last year, handed over any moneys either from the tramway department direct or from the Common Good in the relief of rates. Last year it was decided to relieve the parks rate to the extent of 2d. per £1. This necessitated turning over to the parks department from the surplus revenue of the Common Good the sum of £43,995. When the question of repeating this contribution came before the town council in the current year the motion was defeated, and on August 3 last, the council passed a resolution "that the surplus of the Common Good be in the meantime retained in a suspense revenue account for application by the corporation for the purpose of acquiring and removing buildings in congested areas within the city, as might be hereafter determined."

In the report of the Tramways Conference published in the London *Municipal Journal* for October 7,1911, a summary is given of the opinions most largely held by the men responsible for the operation of the municipal tramways of Great Britain. It is said that "rates should not be relieved from tramway profits if tramways committees can help it," and that in any case before rates are relieved the local authorities should build up strong reserve funds. It is also stated as the general consensus of opinion that "the limit of concessions in regard to fares, wages, etc., has been reached. Half penny fares are anathema. Workmen's cars should not be run at a loss." Tramway men's strikes should be settled by referring the dispute to the tramways manager, with power to act. Other points of agreement related principally to various improvements in equipment.[1]

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International Municipal Congress.—An international municipal congress and exposition was held in Chicago from September 18 to 30. It had been widely advertised in the various cities of the country, particularly among the officials interested in the League of American Municipalities, the secretary of which, Mr. MacVicar, was commissioner general of the Congress. The exposition occupied the entire Coliseum, consisting chiefly of municipal appliances, and wall-exhibits of municipal departments in Chicago, New York and a number of smaller cities. The Congress held twelve afternoon and evening sessions. The object of the Congress and Exposition was to popularize municipal progress and to furnish an opportunity for exhibitors of municipal appliances to show their goods. This exposition of municipal appliances was well displayed, occupying practically the entire floor of the Coliseum. Street cleaning machines, voting machines, lighting fixtures, drinking fountains, office systems and other appliances incident to municipal government were shown. At one end were the extensive exhibits of the city of New York, most of which were shown in last year's budget exhibit and a very large exhibit of the Chicago health department and sanitary district. The Association of Commerce displayed its elaborate material on the Chicago city plan. The gallery around the upper part of the building was given over to a very extensive exhibit of city plan drawings and sketches from American and European cities and to a well-displayed exhibit of the Chicago public schools.

Throughout the Congress the attendance was miserably small. The Chicago public had not been actively interested in the Congress and although many attractions were provided, such as band concerts and moving picture shows, the attendance, except for school children, was never large. The twelve sessions were held in an open room leading off the main floor of the Coliseum. The arrangements were entirely inadequate, the room noisy and the audience small and varied, consisting largely of women and children. Some of the programs were very strong, distinguished authorities in municipal government coming from many cities in the country to make addresses. There were in addition seven special sessions on problems of hygiene led by former Health Commissioner W. A. Evans of Chicago.

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[1] From Dr. Delos F. Wilcox.

Among the subjects and speakers were: Daniel H. Burnham, Chicago, and Richard B. Watrous, secretary, American Civic Association, Washington, D. C., on city planning; Miss Julia Lathrop, Chicago, on woman and the municipality; Bion J. Arnold, Chicago, public utilities; Hon. Lawson Purdy, Commissioner of Taxes and Assessments, New York City, Taxation; Hon. Emil Seidel, Mayor of Milwaukee—the city for the people (Municipal Socialism); and Benjamin C. Marsh, executive secretary, Committee on Congestion of Population in New York—the city for the people (Good Housing at Reasonable Rents).

It is a matter of great regret that the management did not interest a larger number of people in the Congress and Exposition, for it had possibilities for much needed popular education in the business and functions of municipal government.

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Civic Secretaries Committee.—The formation of a civic secretaries committee by the National Municipal League brings out clearly the development of a new profession, a new career for capable young men who are desirous of devoting themselves to public work and at the same time earning a livelihood. Just as the charity organizations and the business associations have come to realize the need of professionally trained secretaries so the lengthening list of city clubs, municipal leagues and civic federations have come to realize that they cannot depend upon spasmodic, voluntary effort if they are to amount to anything in the community. There was a time when enthusiasts felt that all that was really needed to change conditions was to form a league or an association, adopt a platform that ran "trippingly from the tongue," raise a few war whoops and the "trick was done." Now everyone knows better. Civic work like every other endeavor dealing with human beings and human problems must be carefully thought out and deliberately planned. So our cities are coming to be served by a group of voluntary bodies which, guided by thoughtful and efficient men, are contributing largely to the solution of difficult municipal problems. The City Clubs of Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Chicago and Kansas City are a quintette of organizations serving as nuclei around which city-wide movements have been formed and are forming. Their activities call for high grade civic secretarial work. The voters' leagues likewise require men of judgment and discernment, courage and foresight. There are improvement associations and civic commissions and federations and sundry other bodies all manned by those who may be reasonably termed "civic experts." Moreover business bodies are coming to retain civic secretaries to look after their increasing civic activities. The National Municipal League's Committee is only a year old, but already its membership exceeds forty, which is an encouraging evidence of growth in this "new profession." Reports, advice and suggestions are freely exchanged by the members for the benefit of all; but above all it promotes an *esprit du corps* on civic affairs that promises to be of the largest usefulness in the civic movement.[1]

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Commission Government Conference.—The third conference of the Commission Government Association of New York State was held in New York, on Friday, October 13, "an unlucky day for the opposition" as was stated in the notice of the meeting. There are now thirty-three cities with representatives on the advisory board of this association, viz.: Albany, Amsterdam, Auburn, Batavia, Buffalo, Cohoes, Corning, Dansville, Elmira, Fishkill, Fulton, Geneva, Ithaca, Jamestown, Johnstown, Lockport, Mt. Vernon, Niagara Falls, North Tonawanda, Ogdensburg, Olean, Ossining, Oswego, Poughkeepsie, Rochester, Schenectady, Seneca Falls, Syracuse, Troy, Utica, Watertown, White Plains and Yonkers.

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[1] From Professor Murray Gross.

Of the three cities of the first-class, two, Buffalo and Rochester, have local commission government associations. Of the six cities of the second-class, four have local associations. Of the forty cities of the third-class, Mt. Vernon and Watertown have local associations, many have city committees, and all with the exception of four, are evidencing a strong interest in the movement. Twenty-six of the large villages also desire commission government.

The legislature of New York State has fought all efforts along this line of municipal reform, especially the initiative, referendum and recall. In 1910, two commission charters presented were, Batavia and Buffalo. They received scant courtesy, neither bill being reported out of committee. To the last legislature, recently adjourned, charters on the commission plan were presented by Batavia, Buffalo, Fishkill-Matteawan (uniting as Beacon), Lockport, Mt. Vernon, Ossining, Saratoga and Yonkers. On March 28, at a joint hearing of the cities committees, citizens from all over the State, individually and as delegates from boards of trade, local commission associations and civic clubs, including a delegation of one hundred from Buffalo on a special train, standing for the principle of home-rule, pleaded strenuously for five hours in behalf of these bills, but to no avail. The Buffalo bill, introduced simultaneously in both houses, on which the main fight was made, was defeated by the Assembly on June 6 by a vote of 71 against to 53 for. The senate, after striking out the initiative, referendum and recall, passed the bill; but it went from there to the Assembly only to be rejected again, this time the vote being 44 against, 58 for, as 76 votes were necessary for passage. Many of the Assemblymen "ducked" this vote. The Mt. Vernon bill received the same treatment. The Beacon bill, shorn of initiative, referendum, recall and its non-partisan nomination and election features, was passed by both houses only to be vetoed by Governor Dix on the ground that a general third-class city charter would probably be passed at the next session of the legislature.

The conference decided to incorporate the State association.

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Special Libraries Association.—The annual meeting was held in New York City, September 26 and 27. The attendance consisted mostly of representatives of office libraries, special technical libraries and municipal and legislative libraries. The third session was devoted to public affairs libraries. M. S. Dudgeon, secretary of the Wisconsin free library commission, discussed the qualifications of legislative and municipal reference librarians. Horace E. Flack, legislative reference librarian of Baltimore, spoke on the present status of municipal reference and Clinton Rogers Woodruff, secretary of the National Municipal League, gave an address on "Sources of municipal material with special reference to the establishment of a clearing house for such material." John A. Lapp, legislative reference librarian, Indiana, submitted an interesting report as chairman of the committee on a public affairs index. The discussion following the formal addresses was very interesting and was participated in by Clarence B. Lester, legislative reference librarian, New York; H. H. B. Meyer, chief bibliographer, Library of Congress; H. O. Brigham, state librarian, Rhode Island; Chas. F. Belden, state librarian, Massachusetts, and C. W. Andrews, librarian, John Crerar Library, Chicago. The discussion in relation to the qualifications of legislative and municipal librarians was particularly valuable. The recent report of the committee on municipal reference libraries of the National Municipal League was referred to with approval. This report states that the qualifications of the head of a municipal reference library should include "a liberal education, or with special training in political science, economics, municipal government and methods of organization and administration." A legislative reference library requires a systematic and intensive organization of material relating to all legislative problems and the preparation of historical, comparative and scientific studies on various problems of legislation. There is usually combined with this the work of bill drafting which requires accurate knowledge of constitutional law and the law of statutory construction and affords an opportunity for real constructive work in the development of new methods of legislation. All this makes the legislative reference department not merely a well organized collection of material but also a research and statistical bureau. Robert H. Whitten, librarian-statistician of the New York public service commission for the New York City district was elected president of the Association.

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Conferences on Uniform Accounting.—The Honorable Joseph T. Tracy, in charge of the Ohio bureau of inspection and supervision of public offices, is engaged at the present time in revising the schedules for use in his office. The current year completes ten years' use of the first schedules, and Mr. Tracy and those associated with him desire to make a complete recasting of their schedule so far as the same is necessary to carry out the provisions of the law and to bring their office more into harmony with other state offices of the same character. In the work of preparing these schedules Mr. Tracy has been in correspondence with and coöperating with Mr. F. R. Leach, of the Cincinnati bureau of municipal research, and Mr. U. L. Leonhauser, of the Metz Foundation, New York City. A conference was arranged between Mr. Tracy and these two gentlemen for October 20 and 21, to which were invited representatives of the Indiana state board of accounts, as well as the bureau of the census. The Indiana office was represented by Mr. W. A. Dehority, state examiner, and one of his assistants, and the bureau of the census was represented by the chief statistician in charge of statistics of cities, Dr. L. G. Powers. The work of the conference carries a step forward the task of harmonizing the census schedules and those of the various state bureaus, that was begun at the conference at the Hotel La Salle in Chicago, September 26, 27 and 28.[1]

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League of American Municipalities Convention.—The League of American Municipalities consisting of the mayors, and official representatives of various municipalities appointed by the mayors or city councils, held its fifteenth annual convention in Atlanta, Georgia, October 4 to 7. The League maintains a central bureau of information in Detroit for the dissemination of statistical reports and other information and it also issues periodically a Bulletin called the *City Hall* containing the general news of progress in municipal government, particularly on the technical side. The three days' program at Atlanta was given over largely to better accounting systems, efficiency systems for employees and the commission form of government. Practical methods for a business government of cities were the chief topics of the meeting, thus emphasizing the rapid advance being made all over the country in raising the standards of municipal administration, under whatever form of government, through the application of commonsense methods developed under competitive business.

John MacVicar of DesMoines, who for years has been secretary, was elected president and E. R. Schneiter, Jr., of Detroit, the secretary of the League of Michigan Municipalities, was chosen to succeed Mr. MacVicar as secretary. The League has fixed its 1912 meeting for Buffalo.

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[1] From Dr. LeGrand Powers.

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Convention of Union of Canadian Municipalities.—The Union of Canadian Municipalities held its eleventh annual convention at Quebec, August 29 to 31. The convention was attended chiefly by municipal officials from practically all the Canadian provinces. The Union publishes a monthly journal. Each province in Canada has a union of the cities within its limits which reported at the annual convention. The convention held five sessions, the programs covering a wide range of municipal subjects, chief among them being town planning, congestion, housing and child welfare. Other topics discussed were accounting systems, pure food, pensions for municipal employees, civil service and railroad terminals. The program thus dealt chiefly with the broad social problems of urban communities, rather than with special problems of municipal administration. W. D. Lighthall, K.C., of Montreal, is the honorary secretary of the Union.

✣

City Plan Exhibit.—Providence held in October an interesting city plan exhibit at which were shown comprehensive models and drawings including a particularly striking suggestion for a Hillside Park and Open-air Greek Theatre for the city of Providence itself. The exhibit served a three-fold purpose. It was, in a quiet way, a celebration of the 275th anniversary of the founding of Providence. It showed the development of the city from an architectural point of view, and of course, was intended to stimulate interest in the plan for a comprehensive development of the city. It is the purpose of those interested to secure an official city plan commission. The exhibit was accompanied by several conferences, the chief address being made by Arnold W. Brunner, President of the New York Chapter of the American Institute of Architects.

✣

Municipal Parliament.—The autumn general meeting of the (British) Association of Municipal Corporations was held in London on October 14. One hundred and thirty-eight municipal corporations were represented by mayors, or town clerks, or both, and in some cases other officers. The meeting discussed chiefly the national insurance bill, the local taxation of the government telephone system, the local income tax, the assessment of railways, milk legislation, and other matters.

✣

News of the State Leagues of Municipalities.—The Kansas League of Municipalities held its third annual convention in Topeka, October 11 and 12. It was attended by about one hundred municipal officials. The city attorneys organized a separate group as an auxiliary to the league. The discussions during the five sessions covered a wide range of subjects. Chas. H. Talbot of the Kansas City municipal reference library spoke of the practical usefulness of such a library to municipal officials. The police problem was generally discussed and the point emphasized that experience with a successful police system had shown that a rating according to the orderly condition of a policemen's "beat" brings better results than any other standard of work. The league recommended the Atchison plan, whereby every policeman knows that if a "joint" or illegal house is allowed to operate on the "beat" without being raided within twenty-four hours, he will be discharged. An interesting feature of the meeting was a paper on what each city has that other cities ought to have, and what each would like to have that it does not now have. The subject of municipal public utilities was discussed in several papers.

The League of California Municipalities held its fourteenth annual convention at Santa Barbara on October 23 with the largest attendance in its history. The subjects covered a wide range, including municipal experts, municipal efficiency bureaus, municipal utilities, taxation and the commission form of government.

The Mississippi Municipal League met at Vicksburg on October 10 and 11. The subjects discussed were general civic problems rather than the problems of municipal administration itself. Some of the papers were: "State Juvenile Reformatories," "Health and Hygiene," "Commission Government" and "Needed Legislation."

League of Wisconsin Municipalities. A report of the proceedings of the thirteenth annual convention is given in the issue of *The Municipality* for September, 1911. The meeting was held at Superior, Wis., July 26–28, and was attended by nearly two hundred delegates. In addition to the president's address and secretary's report, the proceedings include papers on oiling streets, garbage crematories and municipal reference bureaus, the last by Fred. H. McGregor of the University of Wisconsin, who has been elected secretary of the League of Wisconsin Municipalities.

The League of Nebraska Municipalities held its first annual meeting in Omaha, November 14 and 15. A helpful program of special interest to municipal officials was given including an address on "Purification of Water for city use and Gas Testing." An interesting exchange of courtesies between the Nebraska League and the National Municipal League was one of the features.

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League of Virginia Municipalities Active.—The program of the sixth annual meeting of the League was held at Cape Charles, September 14–15. It showed evidence of the growing importance of the work undertaken year by year by this League. Advanced views upon such themes as charters, playgrounds, good roads, health, taxation, charities, schools, fire, police and other phases of municipal affairs, were presented by men of prominence and experience, who impressed their ideas so strongly upon the attention of the delegates to the sessions that many of them returned to their cities determined to advocate improved methods of municipal government and realize the aims of the League. A resolution of protest against the proposed amendment to the state constitution intended to give cities home rule was urged on the ground that its provisions were rendered ineffective by the requirement that all charters be such as the state legislature may deem best and make commission form of government impossible by requiring numerous fee officers to be elected by popular vote, and after discussion at length was referred to a special committee.[1]

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New Jersey Municipal Clerks.—The municipal clerks who attended the meeting of the finance committee of the Essex Board of Freeholders of Newark, N. J., wound up the session by forming on September 1, the nucleus of a state organization to be known as the "New Jersey County and Municipal Clerks Association," the objects of which will be to "assist the members in the uniform execution of such duties as are intrusted to them and to encourage such legislation as will tend to the better execution of laws that relate to them." No mention of increased pay was made. City Clerk James F. Connelly, of Newark, was made chairman, and Lincoln E. Rowley, of East Orange, secretary.

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[1] From Professor Murray Gross.

V. ACADEMIC AND EDUCATIONAL

The St. Louis municipal reference branch of public library was opened to the public on October 23, in the City Hall. This department, conducted as one of the regular branches of the public library system is to be maintained for purposes of municipal research and information. It is the intention to collect and preserve data relative to the government of cities in this country, Canada, and Europe. The municipal assembly feeling the need of some systematic way of securing information upon legislative questions directed in a concurrent resolution that the branch be established, and provided a room for the same near the mayor and the houses of legislation, fully equipped for service. The equipment was furnished out of funds other than the regular library fund and the quarters are cared for by the city. The collecting of material and the administration of the library will be carried on under the supervision of the librarian and the board of directors of the library. The work will be along the same lines as the legislative reference work in the departments now established in many of our State libraries and several of our cities. Though intended primarily to furnish municipal information to the city officials, the branch will give service to other libraries and to persons wishing information concerning the municipal affairs and problems of St. Louis.

The branch has not as yet acquired the control of the exchange of city documents, this matter still resting with the city register who has charge of all surplus documents and ordinances. Eventually it hopes to be made the exchange agency for all public material published by the city. Jesse Cunningham lately of the State library at Albany, has been placed in charge of this department.

⁂

St. Louis School of Social Economy is the outgrowth of a series of round table meetings held in 1901–1902 by the St. Louis Provident Association. Regular class work was not begun until 1907 and then only a fifteen weeks term was given. From year to year the sessions have increased in length until at present the work is continued through the academic year. During its first few years it was an affiliated institution of Missouri University, but in the spring of 1909 the affiliation was transferred to Washington University with which school it is now identified. Graduates of universities and colleges with a recognized good standing are admitted without examination and students in the affiliated university may be admitted to certain courses, credit for such work done being accepted toward a degree in the university. For the successful completion of the work of the school a certificate of graduation is presented. In 1910 the school graduated ten students and ninety-six persons were in attendance.

⁂

Publications Combined.—*City Hall* was the title of the official bulletin of the League of American Municipalities, edited by the Hon. John MacVicar, one of the commissioners of Des Moines, Iowa, formerly secretary, now president of the League. In the autumn the *City Hall* was combined with *Midland Municipalities*, which for years had been the official organ, first of the League of Iowa Municipalities, and later of the Kansas and Nebraska Leagues, under the editorship of Frank G. Pierce. The resulting publication is now known as the *City Hall-Midland Municipalities*, and Hon. Frank G. Pierce, former mayor of Marshalltown, Iowa, and for many years the secretary of the Iowa League of Municipalities, is the editor of the new publication, the first number of which appeared in October.

⁂

A Politics Laboratory has been established at Columbia University for the use of students and instructors. The collection of materials contains daily newspapers from different parts of the country; weekly, monthly, and quarterly periodicals; works of reference, the constitutions and statutes of all the States, a practically complete collection of ballots, the slip laws of congress, legislative indexes, reports and documents of various kinds. Emphasis will be laid on municipal government, especially that of New York city. The laboratory has been endowed for two years by Patrick F. McGowan,, formerly president of the board of aldermen.

⁂

Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology.—The scientific study of police administration, criminology and the whole field of research connected directly and indirectly with the criminal have been enriched by the indefatigable and successful labors of Professor J. W. Garner, the editor of the *Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology,* who has been unfortunately compelled by pressure of academic duties to relinquish his editorial work. This journal which has been only recently founded already ranks with the well known and long established journals on the subject published in Europe.

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Twentieth Century Magazine.—Professor Charles Zueblin, formerly of the University of Chicago and author of American Municipal Progress and other works on city government, has been appointed Editor of the *Twentieth Century Magazine,* of Boston, succeeding B. O. Flower in that position. In view of Mr. Zueblin's deep interest in municipal government it may be expected that city affairs will receive under his administration even a larger share of attention in the magazine than hitherto.

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The Milwaukee Municipal Institute has been established under the auspices of the extension division of the State University of Wisconsin. It aims to extend study, information and training in social reform, social welfare and municipal efficiency. Lectures, conferences, observation visits, assigned readings and presentation of papers have been drawing large interested audiences and groups of people. The institute promises to be a potent force in the civic awakening of Milwaukee.

⁂

A Cuban Review.—The *Gaceta Administrativa* is an illustrated review, published at Havana by José E. Maresma, chief of civil administration at the Cuban capital. It is the official organ of the Consultoria Administrativa, and contains editorial discussions of current problems of Cuban administration, and articles on various topics of interest to the profession.

⁂

New Publication.—*Espaces Libres et Jardins Publics* is the title of a new publication, the official organ of the Association technique at Paris, devoted to the study and encouragement of city-planning.

VI. JUDICIAL DECISIONS[1]

Bill Boards.—The city of St. Louis adopted an ordinance regulating bill boards, which provided that they should not exceed 14 feet in height or 500 square feet in total area; should have an open space of at least 4 feet from the lower edge to the ground, and should not approach nearer than 2 feet to another building, or than 6 feet to the lot line, and not be nearer the street than the building line of the lot, nor in any case nearer than 15 feet. The validity of the ordinance is upheld by the supreme court of Missouri (*St. Louis Gunning Advertisement Company v. St. Louis,* 137 S. W., 929).

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[1] Prepared by Richard W. Montague, Esq., of the Portland (Ore.) Bar.

Mr. Justice Woodson, who writes the prevailing opinion, discusses the whole subject at length, but with vigor and a most commendable public spirit, as well as with learning. The decision is placed mainly on the ground that bill boards, as a matter of fact, are so constructed as to be a menace in the event of fire or high winds, and that in the nature of things, as built unrestrained by regulations such as those in the ordinance, they are lairs and ambushes for thieves and foot pads, latrines for vagrants, screens for other unlawful acts, and gathering places for deposits of unsanitary filth and rubbish—all of which the evidence in the case showed to be actual conditions in St. Louis. In view of these facts the court held that the ordinance was not an unreasonable regulation, and that it did not deprive the owners of property without compensation nor otherwise than by due process of law, nor deprive them of the equal protection of the law guaranteed by the familiar provisions of the federal constitution preventing these invasions of private right. The court held that prohibiting these structures without a prohibition of similar structure used for other purposes was not class legislation nor otherwise unlawful because there were no similar structures used for other purposes—a view which shows that the robust common sense which makes some of the old English reports such good reading is not wholly lost to the bench in this generation, as the lamentations of certain melancholy persons have assured us. The opinion plants the regulation squarely upon the police power and fully admits that it will not stand if the thing regulated can be shown not to be obnoxious to public health, safety, or morals (though public "comfort" is referred to here as in some of the other decisions) and that if the objections are wholly esthetic they are not sufficient.

In a very strenuous dissenting opinion by Graves, J., it is insisted that the ordinance is invalid "because it strikes at the use of a structure rather than the character of the structure," and that "when read as a whole it is apparent from the unreasonable regulations placed that the purpose was the suppression of a lawful business rather than the reasonable regulation of structures." The temper of the dissenting opinion may be judged from the remark that "it has remained for civic leagues, rather than the courts, to contend that the police power may be extended to pure esthetic considerations." The decision in all its parts is cordially commended to the draftsmen of legislation on the subject, to whom the Review wishes well. The cause has been removed on writ of error to the Supreme Court of the United States, where in the fulness of time a final decision will be given.

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Initiative and Referendum.—The case of the *Pacific States Telephone and Telegraph Company v. the State of Oregon*, involving the validity of initiative legislation in that commonwealth, was submitted to the Supreme Court of the United States on November 30, together with another Oregon case involving direct legislation of Portland. Briefs were filed by eminent counsel on behalf of the telephone company, which resists in this proceeding the payment of a gross-earnings tax imposed by a law passed by vote of the people of Oregon. For the State a brief was filed by the attorney general, together with an argument by C. E. S. Wood, a distinguished Oregon lawyer and reformer, and W. S. U'Ren, well known as protagonist of the "Oregon system." George Fred Williams of Massachusetts appeared on behalf of a number of States which have adopted similar constitutional provisions.

The opponents of the law rely chiefly upon the provision of the federal constitution (Section 4, Article IV) guaranteeing to every State a republican form of government. They contend that legislation by the people without the intervention of a legislature is a pure democracy, and that a State government in which it exists (even, it seems, along with legislation by representatives) is unrepublican. It is also rather subtly argued that taxation in this manner of certain corporations, while other taxpayers are subject only to taxes imposed by the legislative assembly denies to the former the "equal protection of the laws" assured by section 1 of the Fourteenth Amendment.

Among other points made for the State it is urged that the question is political not judicial; that Congress alone has the right to determine whether the form of government of a State is "republican," and having admitted a State, Oklahoma, with this provision in its constitution congress has decided the question. It was also suggested that the guarantee was to the State as a body and not to individual citizens. Incisive questions asked by members of the court of counsel for the opponents of the law indicate that some at least of their arguments will meet with a very searching analysis. The decision, upon the prime importance of which it is not necessary to enlarge, will be discussed in the Review in the next issue after it is handed down.

* * *

Recall.—Members of the board of education of Dallas, Texas, who had been superseded by others on a recall election sought to restrain the new board from taking office. They contended that their removal deprived them of property (to wit, the office in question) without due process of law; that it impaired the obligation of a contract; that the recall provision of the charter sought to substitute within the municipality a socialistic and communistic system of government in lieu of a republican form of government; and upon other grounds of less general interest. The court (*Bonner v. Belsterling*, Texas Court Civil Appeals, 137 Southwestern Reporter, 1154) disagreed with all of these arguments. In respect of the property argument it remarked:

> The office of member of the board of education of the city of Dallas, is not 'property' within the meaning of that word as used in the State and federal constitutions. Offices are created for the public good, at the will of the legislative power, with such privileges and emoluments attached as are believed to be necessary to make them accomplish the purposes designed . . . The office of member of the board of education of Dallas is property only in the sense that the incumbent is entitled to receive the emoluments of the office so long as he holds the same and until he has ceased to legally occupy the office. But it is not property within the meaning of that word as used in the State and federal constitutions.

The court overruled a previous decision of the Court of Criminal Appeals (*ex parte Farnsworth*, 135 Southwestern Reporter, 535) in which that court had held the initiative and referendum clauses of the Dallas charter unconstitutional, as contrary to the form of government contemplated by the constitution of Texas.

* * *

Commission Form of City Government.—The legislature of the State of Washington at its last session passed an act (Ch. 116, Session Laws, 1911, p. 521) authorizing cities having a population between 2500 and 20,000 to become organized under the commission form as prescribed in the act. The mayor of Walla Walla, which has, or had, to be exact, a population just under 20,000, (*State v. Tausick*, 116 Pac. Rep. 651). The objections to the validity of this act were chiefly of a highly technical character. It was contended that the law was private and special because it made a new classification of cities. To this the court replied that judicial notice would be taken that many cities in the State came between the limits of populaas required by the act, and a mandamus was granted by the court of first instance and sustained in the supreme court refused to call an election on petition, tion prescribed. It was also held that the fact that the act was made effective only when adopted by the particular municipality did not make it special legislation. Walla Walla has since elected a commission of high quality and gone to work under the new form. Two of the three largest cities in the State, Spokane and Tacoma, have also special charters of a commission form.

Commission charters of a number of cities in Oklahoma have been held invalid but the grounds are irregularities in the procedure for adoption, not in the charters themselves.

A cause is pending in the supreme court of Illinois wherein the validity of the act of that State empowering cities to adopt a commission form of government is questioned. The principal points involved will probably be decided in the opinion of the Supreme Court of the United States in the Oregon case above referred to.

VII. SOCIAL AND MISCELLANEOUS

Street Car Meters.—At the conference of the Municipal Tramways Association of Great Britain, an interesting paper was presented by Messrs. R. G. Cunliffe and J. G. Cunliffe, of Manchester, setting forth the results of their experiments carried out under actual working conditions with the more improved types of tramcar meters. They said that on small undertakings with light traffic, approximately equal savings could be effected by the use of meters in the driving and in the detection of faulty equipments, but as congestion of traffic increased, the condition of the equipment became of increasing importance, especially in regard to the feeding and distributing system, where the losses are a fraction of the total energy consumption, and do not merely affect the consumption of individual cars. The saving effected in "driving" results from the increasing care and skill on the part of the motormen in operating their cars. Only one delegate to the conference opposed the use of meters. He objected to them on the ground that their use tended to encourage motormen towards dangerous speeds and jerky starts and finishes. The Messrs. Cunliffe stated that at Bury, under the most favorable conditions, a reduction of 21.79 per cent had been made in the energy consumed, corresponding to a saving of 141.6 per meter per annum. They found, however, that this result had been obtained only by the most unremitting attention on the part of the superintendent and his staff, more supervision and time being devoted to the subject than would be possible in the case of larger systems. They found that on nineteen tramway systems furnishing complete returns, the average saving resulting from the installation of car meters had amounted to £22.66 per meter per annum.

* * *

Investigating Municipal Affairs in Chicago.—Reports of the Citizens' Association and the Civic Federation of Chicago issued during October indicate that both organizations are actively at work coöperating to improve municipal conditions. A six months' investigation of the amicable settlements of track-elevation claims against the city was the principal work of the association during the year and its report showed that in many instances heavy damages were allowed by the city authorities to the owners of buildings which had been erected after the passage of the track elevation ordinances. As a result of the findings of the association, all track elevation claims have been since settled on their merits by trial before courts and juries. The association also made a report on the lighting of the city in which it is asserted that Chicago is one of the best and most cheaply lighted cities in the world. In an arrangement with the sanitary district, the city will have in operation within the next four years 10,000 additional lights at a cost of electric current delivered to the city circuits of $15 per horse power per year. At the annual election last fall, George E. Cole was chosen president, and Shelby M. Singleton, secretary.

The Civic Federation has been conducting a vigorous campaign for tax reform and has appointed a committee to work for a corrupt practices act and the facilitation of impeachment. H. M. Byllesby was reëlected president and Douglas Sutherland, secretary.

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Negro Agencies Unite.—With the object of carrying on constructive and meliorative social work among negroes, improving their social and economic conditions in urban districts, bringing about coördination and coöperation between existing agencies working in the interests of the negroes, and making such studies in cities as may be required for the carrying out of its plans, the National League on Urban Conditions among Negroes was formed last fall by the consolidation of three organizations—the Committee for Improving the Industrial Conditions of Negroes in New York, the National League for the Protection of Colored Women, and the Committee on Urban Conditions among Negroes. Professor E. R. A. Seligman is chairman of the new league, and Edward E. Pratt, secretary.

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Philanthropic Center in Philadelphia.—In execution of the social program adopted at Arden last spring, the philanthropic societies and relief organizations of Philadelphia are energetically pushing a project for a charities building. With this end in view, the associations, which include the Children's Aid Society, the Philadelphia Society for Organizing Charity, the Pennsylvania Society to Protect Children from Cruelty, the Seybert Institution, the Joint Shelter for Children, the Bureau for Registration and Exchange of Confidential Information, the Philadelphia Training School for Social Work, and others have taken temporary quarters at 415–19 South Fifteenth Street, which has been fitted up to provide the associations with offices, a common telephone exchange and a joint application bureau for the assignment of cases.

⁂

Detroit Campaigning for Better Housing.—Through the Detroit housing commission, of which Mr. Luther Lovejoy is secretary, the board of commerce of Detroit is carrying on an aggressive campaign for a cleaner city and better housing. The commission is vigorously and constantly inspecting new and old tenements, lodging houses and even detached homes and reporting violations of the building laws to the Building Department upon which it brings sufficient pressure to secure a proper enforcement of the laws. By acting as a clearing house for complaints regarding housing conditions, the commission is an efficient agency in the affairs of the city.

⁂

Chicago Treasurers to Face Charge.—Suits to recover about $500,000 from former Cook County treasurers have been instituted by the county board. Charges are made that the county treasurers illegally appropriated interest on the public funds, retained commissions upon inheritance taxes collected during their term of office, and failed to pay into the general fund of Cook County compensation received as ex officio town collectors of the seven towns in the city of Chicago. Gustavus T. Tatge, a former county attorney, has been named as special attorney for the county.

⁂

A "Lexow" Investigation in Albany.—During the closing days of the New York State legislature, a committee of the senate was appointed to investigate conditions in the city of Albany, and James W. Osborne, of New York City, was named as counsel to the investigating committee. Public sessions of the committee were held in October and November and many matters reflecting discredit upon "machine" management of the city have been disclosed, but apparently without any effect upon the elections.

⁂

Public Entertainment of Strangers.—A unique difficulty confronts the government of Oakland, Cal. A feature of the commission government charter, which went into effect in that city a few months ago, provides a fund by means of a tax for advertising the city and entertaining visitors which will amount to about $30,000 a year. The city fathers are considerably puzzled to know how far to go in official hospitality to strangers within the gates of the city.

⁂

The Social Evil in Kansas City.—Investigation of the social evil in Kansas City was made last spring by the research bureau of the board of public welfare and the results of the investigation were published in a comprehensive report issued by the board in November. The report concludes: "Surely it is time that vigorous measures be taken to check an evil which is of such great injury to the very life and fibre of this community."

⁂

Child Welfare.—During November and December, a series of child welfare conferences and exhibits were held in Kansas City, New York, Philadelphia, Chicago and other cities to consider plans to give every child under urban conditions the best opportunity for physical, mental and moral development.

The Civic League of St. Louis has published a directory of the civic organizations of that city, giving information as to the objects, meetings, membership, dues and officers of the respective societies.

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San Francisco uses lantern slides to show graphically to the citizens what the government is doing through its various departments. The slides constitute an enlightening lesson in the work of the city, and the effort in publicity which they represent contains the germ of an idea that might be effectively developed in many directions.

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The mayor of Boston has renewed his efforts to secure legislation permitting municipalities to impose an unearned increment tax, and the New York congestion committee will renew its campaign in the legislature for its proposal to throw the burden of taxation upon land rather than upon improvements.

⁂

Survey of Lowell.—Dr. George F. Kenngott has just completed a social survey of Lowell, Mass., which is published by the Macmillan Company. The volume shows the economic transformation of a New England town and contains material of great value to the students of modern social conditions.

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M. N. Baker, Editor of the *Engineering News*, has been elected chairman of the executive committee of the National Municipal League.

RECENT ARTICLES IN PERIODICALS OF MUNICIPAL INTEREST

General

Eastman, Max. The Unlimited Franchise, *Atlantic Monthly*, July. (A paper filled with irrepressible hope for the ultimate success of democracy.)

Hendrick, Burton J. "Statement No. 1," *McClure's*, September. (Describes the Oregon legislature and the election of United States senators.)

MacDermott, W. R. A Plea for the Efficient Organization of Local Administration, *Westminster Review*, October. (Pictures the lack of coöperation in different administrative departments in English local government.)

Commission Government

Jones, William C. A Model Municipal Charter, *Independent*, September 14. (An outline of the Berkeley charter.)

Oyen, Henry. The Awakening of the Cities, *World's Work*, September. (A comparative study of the charters of Des Moines, Dallas, Kansas City, Grand Rapids and Staunton.)

Welliver, Judson C. The Onward Sweep of City Government by Commission, *Munsey's*, August.

Accounting

Fetherton, J. T. Street Cleaning Records, *Municipal Journal and Engineering*, October 18. (Discusses Mr. Meyer's articles.)

Meyer, Ernst C. Street Cleaning Accounting, *Municipal Journal and Engineering*, September 6 and 13, and October 4 and 11.

Meyer, Ernst C. Physical Records of Municipalities, *Municipal Journal and Engineering*, October 4. (In these five articles Mr. Meyer presents the necessity of recording the per unit cost of various services in order to estimate their relative economy. One of the papers gives a model standard form for reporting and accounting.)

Sands, Herbert L. Accounting and Efficiency, *Municipal Journal and Engineering*, November 1. (A discursive paper showing the relation between per unit cost and scientific budget making.)

Municipal Lodging Houses

Brown, Edwin A. Living with the Homeless, *World To-Day*, July.

City Planning

Oyen, Henry. The Awakening of the Cities, *World's Work*, July. (A sketchy survey of city planning in American cities.)

Robinson, Charles M. Civic Art, *Architectural Record*, November. (A review of Thomas H. Mawson's "Civic Art: Studies in Town Planning.")

Schuyler, Montgomery. The Building of Pittsburgh, *Architectural Record*, September.

Comfort Stations

Connelly, Edward E. Comfort Station at Trenton, *Municipal Journal and Engineering*, November 8.

Finance

Johnson, Tom L. The Inequalities of Taxation, *Hampton's*, August. (This paper published posthumously gives Mr. Johnson's struggles in Ohio for greater equality in taxation.)

New York Municipal Budget Exhibit, *Municipal Journal and Engineering*, October 18.

Wade Herbert T. The New York Budget Exhibit, *American Review of Reviews*, November.

Fire

Croker, Edwin F. Our Losing Fight Against Fire, *World' Work*, August and September. (A plea for fire prevention.)

McFarlane, Arthur E. Fire and the Skyscraper, *McClure's*, September. (Narrates the horrors of the fire in the Asch Building and the reasons therefor.)

McFarlane, Arthur E. The Inflammable Tenement, *McClure's*, October. (An urgent appeal for better building laws.)

Fire Departments, *Municipal Journal and Engineering*, September 20. (Describes the departments of New York, Trenton, Paterson, Newark, and Passaic.)

Fire Drills in Factories, *Insurance Engineering*, November.

Oakland Fire Alarm Central Station, *Municipal Journal and Engineering*, October 25.

HEALTH AND SANITATION

LEWIS, D. M. Practical Municipal Milk Examinations, *American Public Health Association Journal*, November.

PALMER, GEORGE S. The Survey and the Small City, *World To-Day*, July. (A cursory review of questions appertaining to health and sanitation.)

Chicago Sewage Disposal Experiment Station, *Municipal Journal and Engineering*, October 4.

INITIATIVE AND REFERENDUM

HAYNES, G. H. People's Rule in Municipal Affairs, *Political Science Quarterly*, September. (A painstaking examination of the practical operation of the initiative and referendum in the municipal election June 5, 1911, at Portland, Oregon.)

HENDRICK, BURTON J. The Initiative and Referendum and How They Got Them in Oregon, *McClure's*, July. (Recounts the efforts of Wm. S. U'Ren and his associates in their attempt to establish the initiative and referendum in Oregon.)

HENDRICK, BURTON J. Law-making by the Voters, *McClure's*, August. (A lucid description of the initiative and referendum, the corrupt practices acts, the publicity pamphlet, and the direct primaries in Oregon.)

PAVING

NICHOLSON, MAURY. Brick Pavement Problem, *Municipal Journal and Engineering*, November 1.

PUBLIC RECREATION

FARWELL, ARTHUR. New York's Municipal Music, *American Review of Reviews*, October.

FOSTER, WARREN DUNHAM. Worcester's Garden City, *World To-Day*, July. (Illustrates the development of flower gardens by the children of a New England town.)

MAYER, MARY J. Our Schools as Social Centers, *American Review of Reviews*, August.

OYEN, HENRY. The Awakening of Our Cities, *World's Work*, August. (A brief survey of the growth of the movement for playgrounds and other social centers in this county.)

PUBLIC UTILITIES

BROOKS, SYDNEY. Aspects of Public Ownership, *North American Review*. (Beginning with the August number and continuing through the September, October and November numbers, Mr. Brooks in an impartial and unprejudiced way takes up the general principles of municipal ownership. He considers both the social and financial aspects of the problem.)

JOHNSON, TOM L. *Hampton's*. (In the July number of this magazine there appeared the first installment of Tom Johnson's account of his fight for the three-cent fare in Cleveland. The other chapters have been published in the August, September and October numbers.)

MEYER, B. H. Central Utility Commissions and Home Rule, *American Political Science Review*, August.

PUBLIC WORK

CHITTENDEN, H. M. Public Execution of Public Work, *Forum*, November.

RECALL

HENDRICKS, BURTON J. The Recall in Seattle, *McClure's*, October.

SEVENTEENTH ANNUAL MEETING

OF THE

NATIONAL MUNICIPAL LEAGUE

Held at Richmond, Virginia,

November 13, 14, 15 and 16, 1911

Monday Evening Session

Monday, November 13, 1911, 8.30 o'clock p.m.—The first session of the meeting was held in the auditorium of the Hotel Jefferson, Richmond, Va., Honorable Walter L. Fisher, secretary of the interior, presiding, who introduced Mayor D. C. Richardson, of Richmond, as the first speaker. Mayor Richardson after giving an interesting outline of the form of Richmond's government and after a hearty welcome he concluded by saying:

"The people of Richmond are progressive but conservative, and they are not disposed to adopt any measure which is a wide departure from our former government without mature consideration. But we are people of receptive minds, and desire all the light possible on the important question of municipal government. We desire to hold fast to that which is good, but at the same time we are anxious to adopt all measures that will promote the progress of our city and the happiness of our people."

Chairman Fisher: There are three things which I think the league is to be congratulated upon. First, the growing recognition of the work of the league and the important place that it is filling in the progress of the municipalities of this country. The work which it has done in city charter-making, in municipal accounting, in the various matters that relate to municipal grants and franchises, the numerous papers and discussions which it has published and which have had a widespread distribution throughout the country, have undoubtedly a real, substantial effect upon the movement of which this league is so large an organized part.

The second thing that I desire to congratulate the league upon is the unquestioned success that is attending the movement to improve municipal conditions in the United States. There can no longer be any doubt but that we are making substantial progress. It is no longer the fashion to call attention throughout the country to municipal corruption and inefficiency in the way that was so universal a short while ago. Of course we are far from having achieved perfection, or even that degree of success, which members of this body hold is so easily attained. At the same time, there is no question but that certain matters in our government are being brought forward to public attention, as being more immediately necessary to receive that attention, as more immediately needing it; and that fact itself, I think, marks the substantial advance which all students recognize to have occurred in this country within a very short period of years.

The third thing I wish to congratulate the league upon is that it has at this time as its president a man who is so well versed in the matters which are the objects of its endeavors, and I take great pleasure in introducing to you your president, William Dudley Foulke, of Richmond, Indiana.

[Mr. Foulke's presidential address is published in the National Municipal Review, under the caption "An Effective Municipal Government."]

Chairman Fisher: I do not know that it will help to explain the problem which President Foulke has been discussing this evening, but perhaps it will interest him and you, as it has me, to know that Dr. Adickes, the Oberburgermeister of Frankfort, is a member in regular and ordinary standing of the National Municipal League.

TUESDAY MORNING SESSION

Tuesday, November 14, 1911, 9:00 o'clock a.m.

Honorable Charles J. Bonaparte, of Baltimore, in the chair.

The first order of business was the report of the treasurer, Mr. George Burnham, Jr., of Philadelphia, which follows:

NATIONAL MUNICIPAL LEAGUE

INCOME AND EXPENSE FOR THE YEAR ENDED MARCH 31, 1911.

Income		
Membership dues		$11,755.00
Contributions		4,824.79
Sales of Proceedings		1,200.89
Interest and discount		30.96
		$17,811.64
Expense		
Salaries and clerical work	$6,330.76	
Postage	3,208.44	
Printing and stationery	3,519.98	
Proceedings	2,000.95	
Clipping Sheet	248.07	
News clippings	205.50	
Traveling expenses	599.92	
General expense	708.97	
Accounts receivable charged off	10.65	
Total expense		$16,833.24
Net income for year, transferred to "National Municipal League."		$ 978.40

The Treasurer's books and reports were referred to Harvey S. Chase and Company, certified public accountants of Boston, under date of June 20, 1911, who reported as follows:

"We, therefore, certify that we have verified the treasurer's accounts to the extent of ascertaining that the receipts are supported by regular reports from the secretary; that the disbursements are supported by approved vouchers; that the balance of cash called for March 31, 1911, is on deposit at the Union Trust Company, Philadelphia, and that the following schedules are in agreement with the facts as disclosed by the books."

On motion, duly seconded, the report of the treasurer was unanimously approved and adopted.

CHAIRMAN BONAPARTE: The next head of business is amendments to the constitution and by-laws. The report of the committee of which Mr. Charles Richardson is chairman, will be presented by the secretary.

THE SECRETARY: For upwards of a year there has been discussion of the constitution and by-laws in the executive committee. They were adopted seventeen years ago, and the growth of the league in many directions has made the old form not only difficult of operation, but rather out of harmony with the democratic ideas which prevail in the league. The most notable instance of that fact is that the electing power in the league under the existing by-laws is in the affiliated members, the organization members, leaving the individuals entirely without any voice in the management of the league.

I have here the suggested constitution and by-laws. Copies of the proposed changes were sent to all of the affiliated (or voting) members of the league six months ago, and 65 of them have formally expressed their approval of them. To date there has been no negative vote or objection made to the constitution and by-laws. The principal change is in the method of voting, the old method being by means of delegates from affiliated members. The new Article VI provides a much more democratic form.

Then there is a considerable change in the phraseology. Originally the executive committee was what its name purported to be, an executive committee; but, in process of time and by reason of the growth of the league, that body has grown to be a committee of thirty-three members and the officers, rather a large body for an executive committee. So three or four years ago a business committee was created to discharge the duties of a real executive committee. The by-laws call the old committee the council, to meet twice a year, at least, and as much oftener as may be necessary, and call the business committee the executive committee.

It was suggested at the executive committee meeting yesterday, that in view of the fact that the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW will hereafter be sent to all members of the league in good standing, it might be proper to add an amendment to Section 6 by saying, "Any person or association approved by the council or its authorized representatives may become a member of the league by the payment of $5.00 for the current fiscal year of the league, and thereby become entitled to receive such periodical publications of the league as may be issued during the term of membership."

Copies of the amended by-laws were distributed and carefully considered.

MR. DANA: We might adopt the suggestion of providing that the dues shall cover the annual publications of the league; then, if that is wrong, we can amend it. We will need an amendment at any rate, probably, and it seems to me wiser to make the change now with the chance that it will be satisfactory.

THE SECRETARY: Then I move that in the 6th Section of the proposed constitution, on page 4, after the word "thereafter," the following words be inserted:

"Such payment shall include a subscription for one year to any periodical issued by the league."

The aforegoing amendment, and an amendment making the life membership $100.00 were duly seconded and unanimously adopted. Thereupon, on motion duly seconded, the proposed constitution and by-laws, as amended, were unanimously adopted.

THE CHAIRMAN: Dr. Albert Bushnell Hart then presented the report of the executive committee.

REPORT OF THE CHAIRMAN OF THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE, NOVEMBER 14, 1911

Some societies intended for the enlightenment and betterment of mankind are conducted by bosses; some by a commission government made up of the titular officers; and a few are democracies ruled either by a mass meeting, or, as in the case of the National Municipal League, governed by a "big-side" legislative body—the executive committee. Under the new constitution and by-laws it is now approaching its dissolution, and will be succeeded by a formal council which will henceforth be the main-spring of the League.

One of the reasons for the effectiveness of the National Municipal League is this vital body which meets not only at the period of the annual conference, but at least once in the interim to prepare business for your consideration; and to perform important functions including the organizing of the committees of the League. A member of the committee for some years, it was my fortune to be designated as chairman for the current League year; and I have thus been able to come into close relations with the activities of the society. At the Buffalo meeting of 1910, the executive committee was requested to report on its year's activities. It has seemed suitable that this report should be made to the League as a whole.

Membership of the Committee

The members of the executive committee are elected by the League at its annual meeting and pains have been taken to secure a proper representation of the various sections of the country; and to recognize the coming forward of new and active men.

Meetings

The committee has held one general meeting in New York, April 20, 1911, at which 22 out of the 35 members were present and another in Richmond on November 13. with an attendance of 15. In addition, the chairman and the secretary of the League have repeatedly communicated with all the members of the committee by letter, and with various members on special topics. The spring meeting is of especial service, because it is free from the entanglements of the annual meeting, and has time to discuss and settle upon questions of large general policy.

Place of Annual Meetings

One of the functions of the executive committee is to decide upon the place of the League's annual meeting, an honor for which many cities strive. At the meeting in April was made the happy decision to assemble here. A member of the committee from the Pacific coast appeared and by his eloquence brought the committee to the point of recommending a departure from its usual policy both as to time and place of the annual meeting, by undertaking to meet at Los Angeles in June or July, 1912.

Committee System

It is through the executive committee or council that the system of investigating and reporting committees has been established and made fruitful in much of the best and most far reaching work of the League. At present there are no less than 15 active committees, besides several which have completed their work and dissolved. The members of these committees are designated by the present business committee, and include a considerable number of the members of the executive committee, and many other of the recognized experts in municipal affairs throughout the country.

These committees are the antennae of the League, and are organized upon a definite principle, or rather a series of definite principles.

(1) The 2500 members of the League include a large number of practical men who are in a position to find out just what is going on in Amercian cities, and to suggest practical improvements and reforms. This body of people is the most valuable asset of the League; and it is the purpose of the executive committee to utilize it.

(2) The League comes into contact with a great number of important municipal questions, upon which there is little authentic information. The most direct way of examining those questions is through small committees which can organize and distribute the work, analyze the results and concentrate them into brief reports.

(3) Such reports furnish the best possible material for concrete discussions in the meetings of the League. The expectation is that such a committee, once appointed. will in the course of one or two years be able to make at least a preliminary report at a meeting of the League; can avail itself of the consequent criticisms; and eventually will have ready a final report which can go out as the contribution of the League to the subject.

(4) One of the significant advances of the year has been the appropriation of moderate sums of money for the employment of experts to collect information for some of the committees. One of the young gentlemen thus engaged made such an impression by his work that he has received an appointment in the office of the controller of New York.

Many of the most important results and publications of the discussions of the League in the past have taken the form of such committee reports. The selection and distribution of members of the committees, the development of new talent, and the publication of the results is perhaps the most important function of the League.

Present Work of the Committees

A brief view of the existing committees and their activity during the past year will illustrate the method just described.

1. *Advisory* (formed in 1908): Charles J. Bonaparte, chairman.—This is a large committee intended to form a body of members of the League distributed throughout the Union, and specially interested in the enlargement of the membership and influence of the League. It is genuinely advisory, both through the valued counsels of its chairman to the officers of the League, and through the suggestive letters of the members on various questions which have been submitted to them.

2. *Civic Secretaries* (formed in 1910): Elliott H. Goodwin, chairman.—This body arose out of the common interest and enthusiasm of a group of men who make civic reform their life work. It sends out special monthly bulletins to its members and acts as a kind of clearing house of information on its special interests. It is now engaged in making up a list of organizations, national, state and local, interested in municipal reform.

3. *Civic Education* (formed in 1910): Arthur W. Dunn, chairman—This committee continues work done by four former committees in collecting information and reporting suggestions for the training of school pupils and college students in municipal government; and is engaged in studying the results of the numerous experiments in civic education.

4. *Experts in Municipal Service* (formed in 1911); Clinton Rogers Woodruff, chairman.—This is a joint committee of the League and the National Civil Service Reform Association, which is to prepare a report on the question of securing and retaining experts in city departments and as municipal advisors. Part of the results of the committee will be presented later in this conference by Mr. Richard H. Dana, a member.

5. *Finances and Budgets* (formed in 1910): George Burnham, Jr., chairman. A report from that committee will form part of the proceedings on Wednesday. It is expected that the work of this committee will be consolidated with that of Committee No. 12.

6. *Franchises* (formed in 1909): Robert Treat Paine, chairman.—This committee has one of the most important tasks in connection with the League, already prefigured by the Municipal Program and its work is expected to last for several years.

7. *Liquor Question* (formed in 1910): Camillus G. Kidder, chairman.—This committee addresses itself to a general problem which, however, both from the social and financial points of view is especially significant in cities. An interim report from this committee will be part of the proceedings on Thursday.

8. *Municipal Courts* (formed in 1911): Harry Olson, chairman.—This is one of the most recent committees to be organized, and it will be at work during the next League year.

9. *Municipal Health and Sanitation* (formed in 1907): M. N. Baker, chairman.—Here is a question which touches directly on the state and rural as well as the municipal functions of government and on which the League through the work of the committee aims to assist to form a proper public opinion.

10. *Municipal Reference Libraries and Archives* (formed in 1909): Dr. Horace E. Flack, chairman.—The work of this committee goes alongside that on civic education. In various parts of the country private and public agencies are at work on the collection and arrangement of materials which will aid in a sound understanding of municipal problems; the committee will aid in correlating these efforts.

11. *Police* (founded in 1910): Frank J.

Goodnow, chairman.—No subject is more significant for good or bad city government than the actual conditions of the police. This investigation is just beginning and will occupy several years.

12. *Program for the Improvement of Municipal Administration* (formed in 1910): W. F. Willoughby, chairman.—The work of this committee is intended to be of a nature similar to that of the laborous committee which drew up the Municipal Program. It proceeds not from a doctrinaire point of view, but from the effort to assemble what has been already done in effective city governments. It will be merged with the Committee on City Finances.

13. *Publication* (formed in 1911): Clinton R. Woodruff, chairman.—This committee has charge of one of the most important activities of the League. It has held many meetings, presented material for vigorous discussions at the meeting of the executive committee in April, and has initiated two new forms of literary output, the *National Municipal League Series*, and the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL **REVIEW.**

14. *School Extension* (formed in 1909): Edward J. Ward, chairman.—This committee made elaborate report at the Buffalo meeting, embodying a number of valuable papers which have been collected and will appear in one of the volumes of the *National Municipal League series.*

15. *Taxation of Benefits and Excess Condemnation* (formed in 1910): Lawson Purdy, chairman.—This committee, an enlargement of a previous committee on taxation has actively dealt with a phase of municipal government which has lately come much into the public eye; and has had an investigation made by an expert, which is likely to eventuate in a volume.

Publications

Equally important is the system o publications which has been worked out during the last year and will henceforth engage a considerable part of the energy and the means of the League. Up to this time the main publication has been the annual volume of *Proceedings*, which contains an immense amount of valuable matter; but it appears only once a year and several months after the meeting. It has been decided to suspend further publication of the *Proceedings* in that form; a considerable number of papers which are read at the meetings of the League, including the secretary's annual report on municipal progress in a modified form, will appear in the new journal. The present cost of the *Proceedings* which has augmented as the interest and variety of discussions has increased, can in considerable part be applied to the new form of publication.

This new form is the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW of which the first number is to appear January 1, 1912. This periodical has been many times suggested, but had to be postponed until the membership was sufficiently enlarged. As we are now on the 2500 mark the discussion has been renewed, a special committee on publications went into the whole subject, and recommended a plan which was thoroughly discussed by the executive committee at its April meeting, and has received the sanction of the business committee and of all the officers. It is intended to be a general review of municipal affairs and municipal progress; to serve as a means of frequent communication between the League and its members; to review the current literature; to give fresh and authentic information. It is not designed that it shall be the organ of the League in the sense of representing any particular propaganda; it is to be the medium of discussion from every point of view, a genuinely national journal.

The second new line of publication is the *National Municipal League Series.* By arrangement with the well known publishing house of D. Appleton and Company, this series is to be published on a royalty basis, so that it will not add to the financial responsibilities of the

League; in fact it is hoped that the sales will help to provide for the expense of preparation of the material. The volumes announced are as follows:

1. *Government Commission*, edited by Clinton Rogers Woodruff, now on sale; the first printing was speedily exhausted and a second one is already made.
2. *Municipal Franchises*, Dr. Clyde L. King of the University of Pennsylvania, Editor.
3. *The Initiative, Referendum and Recall*, Professor William B. Munro, of Harvard University, Editor.
4. *School Extension*, Professor Edward J. Ward of the University of Wisconsin, Editor.
5. *Municipal Finances*, Dr. William B. Hadley, of the Controllers Office, Philadelphia, Editor.
6. *The New Public Health*, Mr. M. N. Baker, Editor of the *Engineering News*, Editor.
7. *Constitutional Municipal Home Rule*, Professor Augustus R. Hatton, of Western Reserve University, member of the approaching Ohio Constitutional Convention, Editor.
8. *City Planning*, Mr. George E. Hooker, Civic Secretary of the Civic Club of Chicago, Editor.

Various other volumes are in contemplation, including Excess Condemnation Increment, Municipal Civil Service; Municipal Recreation.

In making up these volumes it is the intention to collect and include cognate papers and reports out of the *Proceedings* so far as they are still vital, but also to introducde other material, and to supplement and fuse it so as to make each volume authoritative in its field, and the latest work on its subject.

The minor publications of the League —the Clipping Sheets, tracts and descriptive booklets, will be continued much as before; though so far as possible money will be saved in that direction to go towards the new enterprises.

Membership of the League

The Secretary reports to the executive committee a most gratifying increase in the membership of the League. November 30, 1910, the total stood at 2144. Since that time down to November 1 (that is, one month short of a full year) the net additions have been 309, making a total of 2453. The influence of this current meeting will probably raise the total considerably over the 2500 mark by November 30. This places the League among the group of large and powerful societies of this kind. The new quarterly and other publishing activities will help to make the League widely known and its membership desirable. Within a year or two the membership should run above 3000. The increase means not only a broadening of influence, but an improvement of finances which will enable the League to enter upon some of the many important investigations which are awaiting its attention.

Other Functions of the Committee

The executive committee has also considered various other questions relating to the League. It discussed the proposed constitutions and by-laws, drawn up under the direction of the business committee. It has passed upon the contracts and arrangements for the new publications. It has kept the run of the various committees and has received their reports. It has discussed the two prizes offered by the League, namely the Baldwin and the High School.

Albert Bushnell Hart,
Chairman.

The Chairman: It is recommended that the Right Honorable James Bryce, be elected the first honorary member of the league.

Mr. Bryce was then elected an honorary member of the league by a unanimous vote.

THE CHAIRMAN: This report of the executive committee will be placed on file. The next business in order is the report of the nominating committee, which Camillus G. Kidder, Esqr., of Orange, New Jersey, the chairman of the committee, will present.

MR. KIDDER then presented the following report of the nominating committee:

The committee presents the following nominations:

For President: William Dudley Foulke, Richmond, Ind.

For Vice-Presidents: A. Lawrence Lowell, Harvard University; George McAneny, New York; Camillus G. Kidder, New York; Charles Richardson, New York; H. D. W. English, Pittsburgh; Jane Addams, Chicago (new); William Kent, Kentfield, California (new).

For Secretary: Clinton Rogers Woodruff, Philadelphia.

For Treasurer: George Burnham, Jr., Philadelphia.

For Council: Robert Treat Paine, *Boston;* Harvey Stuart Chase, *Boston;* Albert Bushnell Hart, *Cambridge;* William Bennett Munro, *Cambridge;* William G. Low, *New York;* Eugene H. Outerbridge, *New York;* Knowlton Mixer, *Buffalo;* Charles W. Andrews, *Syracuse;* Richard S. Childs, *New York;* Arthur C. Ludington, *New York;* William M. Chadbourne, *New York* (new); Raymond V. Ingersoll, *Brooklyn;* Dudley Tibbits, *Troy;* Merwin K. Hart, *Utica,* Clarence L. Harper, *Philadelphia;* Thomas Raeburn White, *Philadelphia;* J. Horace McFarland, *Harrisburg;* George W. Guthrie, *Pittsburgh;* Oliver McClintock, *Pittsburgh;* A. Leo Weil, *Pittsburgh;* Charles H. Ingersoll, *South Orange, N. J.;* M. N. Baker, *Montclair, N. J.;* William P. Bancroft, *Wilmington;* Charles J. Bonaparte, *Baltimore;* John Stewart Bryan, *Richmond* (new); Elliott Hunt Pendleton, *Cincinnati;* Walter L. Fisher, *Chicago;* Edward L. Burchard, *Chicago* (new); Frederick Cook Morehouse, *Milwaukee* (new); John A. Butler, *Milwaukee;* J. L. Hudson, *Detroit;* N. F. Hawley, *Minneapolis* (new); Dwight F. Davis, *St. Louis;* Ernest C. Kontz, *Atlanta;* Frank J. Symmes, *Redlands;* Rev. Charles N. Lathrop, *San Francisco;* Meyer Lissner, *Los Angeles;* W. D. Lighthall, *Montreal, Quebec* (new).

The following nominations are new:

For Vice-Presidents: Jane Addams and the Honorable William Kent.

For Council: Frederick Cook Morehouse, Edward L. Burchard; W. D. Lighthall, John Stewart Bryan, William M. Chadbourne, N. F. Hawley.

CHARLES W. ANDREWS,
JOHN IHLDER,
L. MCKENZIE JUDKINS,
C. G. KIDDER, *Chairman,*
EDWARD M. SAIT,
Committee.

On motion, duly seconded and adopted, the secretary was instructed to cast the unanimous ballot of the Association for the officers named in the report of the committee.

THE SECRETARY: I have cast the unanimous ballot of those present for the ticket nominated, and I would say that this is the first time I have had the privilege and pleasure of casting a ballot for a lady, Miss Jane Addams.

THE CHAIRMAN: The next business in order is the annual review on "American Municipal Tendencies" by our secretary, Mr. Clinton Rogers Woodruff, of Philadelphia. This review which was read in abstract is printed in full in the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW.

Harvey N. Shepard, Esq., of Boston, then read a paper on "The Thralldom of Massachusetts Cities," which will be printed in a future number of the REVIEW.

CHAIRMAN BONAPARTE: We will hear now a paper by Mr. Thomas M. Pittman, city attorney, of Henderson, North Carolina, on "The Problems of Small Cities: Particularly of the South."

THE PROBLEMS OF SMALL CITIES: PARTICULARLY OF THE SOUTH

BY THOMAS M. PITTMAN

The problems of the small city are not always those of the large one, and when they are alike in character they often differ greatly in degree. There is at least the unlikeness which differentiates the youth who has reached the awkward age from the mature man, who has found his place in the world of thought and action.

It has been urged that city government is only a business concern, and that it ought to be organized and administered accordingly. This is not true. The city government has very important legislative and governmental functions which intimately affect the welfare of the people. They relate to health and public morals, and to the material prosperity of the community. The importance of this phase of city government ought not to be minimized, and there is no need that it shall be. There is need however, that our city governments shall be so organized as to give adequate attention to both legislative and administrative functions. All administrative matters ought to be committed to responsible heads of departments, or committees as may be found most practicable under the circumstances, whose intelligent and ample written reports should be the basis of action by the council. For the council to conduct these matters directly is impracticable. The attempt to do it is one of the discredited features of small city governments. In many places it is still persisted in as if there could be no other course. Indeed, so firmly is this idea fixed in some minds that many urge the commission government upon the supposition that it is the only way to secure responsible heads of departments, and a business administration.

One difficulty in all these systems of city organization, is that the charter or fundamental law whatever form it may take, is too often the work of inexpert draftsmen, who have neither the knowledge which comes of experience nor that derived from a careful study of the best precedents.

In the field of administration there looms up before us very large, the problems of efficient administrators.

In European cities there is usually at least one municipal expert in the city government—commonly the city clerk. Municipal administration becomes a profession with him and the tenure of his office is permanent. He is not merely a secretary or keeper of the records, but the official in whom all the activities of the city centre. He is the repository of all knowledge concerning municipal subjects, particularly of his own city, and the adviser at every turn in local administration. No such condition obtains in the United States, and our municipal life is the poorer for its absence. Such an office would be of incalculable value in our small cities. It would make practicable the coördination and due balancing of the various departments and unify the operations of the administration. A small annual appropriation would enable that officer to build up a municipal library which would bring within convenient reach information of all important municipal movements and activities and give to his city all that time and experience have wrought for others.

There are two fruitful causes of inefficiency in administrative officers: 1. The common distribution of public services among many petty officers with nominal salaries. The offices are a sort of side line to the official's private employment. Obviously the public would be better served by a consolidation of the offices and salaries and the elimination of the "side line" service. 2. The short term of officers other than the mayor and council. The only apparent idea for fixing a term at all for such places seems to rest in the spoils system. Mention has already been made of the possibilities of useful service inherent in the clerk's office. But this possibility is entirely dependent upon the continuous tenure of the clerk. It is almost equally true of the health officer, the police, firemen, street commissioner and others. In all these cases efficiency is largely due to experience in the employment. This of course, can only be secured by the adoption of the merit system.

The Chairman: The last heading of this session is a report on "City Government by Commission," presented by Mr. Richard S. Childs, chairman of the committee which has that subject under consideration.[1]

The report of the committee on commission government was made the subject of a discussion not only at the morning session of the league, but also at the round table luncheon over which Prof. Albert Bushnell Hart presided. The trend of thought followed in the discussion is stated in the note attached to the report of the committee published in this number of the Review.

Tuesday Afternoon Session

Tuesday, November 14, 1911, 3:00 o'clock p. m.

Honorable William Dudley Foulke, president, in the Chair.

The Secretary: Mr. Purdy's committee on "Excess Condemnation and Special Assessments" has been engaged for twelve months in collecting data, and has had for three months a special investigator at work, and will prepare an elaborate report which we hope will see the light of day in the National Municipal League Series. The report has been compiled so recently that the committee has not had time to digest it and make its own recommendations; therefore Mr. Purdy's report is of necessity a brief one.

COMMITTEE ON EXCESS CONDEMNATION AND SPECIAL ASSESSMENTS

As chairman of your committee, I am not able to report at this time on behalf of the committee. What I say therefore must be taken as an expression of my own opinion and as not binding upon any other member of the committee. This report is only a report of progress.

The committee has confined itself almost exclusively to an investigation of excess condemnation in this country and abroad. The committee was fortunate in securing the assistance of Mr. Herbert S. Swan, who has carefully examined many cases in which the principal of excess condemnation has been applied in Europe, where it has been common for many years for cities to acquire more land than that immediately needed for some public improvement for the purpose of safeguarding the work in one way or another. Under the general direction of the committee, Mr. Swan has prepared a report of some thirty thousand words. Cases of excess condemnation in the United States are so rare that of necessity most of the space is given to European examples.

John DeWitt Warner, Esq., is preparing a paper on the legal aspects of excess condemnation in the United States. To complement the report on excess condemnation data is being collected from cities in all parts of the country on the financing of street improvements and parks by special assessments. The law in regard to special assessments very rarely prescribes details, and methods of administration vary greatly as well as the extent to which special assessments are employed. The subject is a difficult one to treat and it will be some time before the committee will be in a position to report concerning it.

In the United States the right of eminent domain can be exercised by the state for a public use only. The federal constitution imposes this limitation upon congress in express terms, while other provisions of the constitution probably impose a similar limitation upon the states. Practically all state constitutions limit the taking of land by eminent domain to the taking for a public use. The legal questions relate to the construction of the term "public use?" If the term is very narrowly limited it may be possible to take no more land by condemnation than that actually required for the bed of a street when a street is opened or widened, or than is required for any other public purpose. If the power of the municipality is thus limited, a public improvement sometimes becomes a curse rather than a blessing. When a new street, for example, is laid out through a plotted and improved section, small and irregular parcels of land are left fronting on the street, and the suitable improvement of abutting land is prevented, unless these parcels can be gathered into one ownership with sufficient adjoining land to form suitable parcels for improvement. It sometimes happens that such remnants of land adjoining a new or widened thoroughfare are held by persons without power to sell, and improvement is indefinitely delayed, assessed values cannot increase, and the owners of adjoining property are burdened with heavy assessments with practically no compensating benefit. On an important avenue in the city of New York there is a strip of land a few inches wide and several hundred feet long, the title to which is defective. The land cannot be sold, and it is practically impossible to improve the land behind the strip because it has no access to the avenue. Many streets are permanently disfigured because of the small remnants left at the time the street was widened or opened.

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[1] This report is published in full in the current number of the Review.

It would seem that it is as much a public purpose to acquire sufficient land bordering a new street as may be necessary to prevent the conditions described, as it is to acquire the land for the street itself. A study of European conditions discloses manifold other social purposes for which land has been acquired, adding to the health, comfort and beauty of the city, conserving the city's resources, and increasing its revenue.

Lawson Purdy, *Chairman.*

Richard Henry Dana, Esq., of Boston then read a paper, entitled "Antitoxin for Municipal Waste and Corruption."[1]

The Hon. Charles J. Bonaparte, of Baltimore, read a paper on "Municipal Civil Service Reform."[2]

The President: I will call upon Professor Robert C. Brooks, of the University of Cincinnati, to read to us a paper upon "The German Imperial Increment Tax."

Dr. Brooks: Briefly, the unearned increment tax is the single tax idea of the late Henry George. Now I am not a single-taxer; in the sense that I believe that the day after its inauguration we would wake up and find our localities transformed into "New Jerusalems;" but I am a single-taxer to this extent, that I believe great benefits will result from the single tax. Germany has approved it; after trying the unearned increment tax, the Zuwachssteuer, it has extended it and applied it to other localities. When such experts on government as the Reichstag adopt a new principle, that principle is going to travel further before it stops traveling. I do not regard Henry George as the greatest intellect the race has produced by any means, but I do regard him as a great thinker who was far from being altogether wrong. You have heárd, because England is closer than Germany, and because the English speak our language, of another George, Lloyd-George, and his great reputation; but much of that reputation is based on ideas taken from Henry George.

Dr. Brooks' paper has been printed in pamphlet form. He pointed out that German cities have grown since 1870 quite as rapidly as those on this side of the Atlantic. Peasants fortunate enough to own and shrewd enough to hold on to property in the line of city growth have frequently become millionaires. The German tax on unearned increment was designed to make such increases in land value contribute to the public treasury. First experimented with in the German protectorate of Kiao Chau in 1898, the idea was taken up by several of the larger German cities in rapid succession. Finally in 1911 the empire entered the field, and extended the new form of taxation over all the states and cities of the fatherland. In case of very large profits on real estate transactions over purchase price and value of permanent improvements the unearned increment tax may amount to as much as 30 per cent of the net gain. The revenue from this source is divided, 50 per cent going to the empire, 10 per cent to the state government, and 40 per cent to the city in which the property is located. Altogether the German unearned increment tax law of 1911 is one of the largest and most significant applications that has yet been made of the ideas of the late Henry George.

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[1] Mr. Dana's paper is printed as one of the leading articles of the January issue of the National Municipal Review.

[2] An abstract of Mr. Bonaparte's paper will appear in the April issue of the Review.

Wednesday Morning Session

Wednesday, November 15, 1911 9:30 o'clock a. m.

President Foulke in the Chair:

Mr. H. P. Nichols offered the following resolution which was adopted after a brief debate:

Resolved, that hereafter the program committee procure, wherever possible, the manuscripts of the papers which will appear on the annual convention programs, and furnish members with copies of the manuscripts thereof thirty days before the meeting.

COMMITTEE ON CITY FINANCES AND BUDGETS

Mr. George Burnham, Jr., of Philadelphia, the chairman of the committee on "City Finances and Budgets," presented the following report from that committee:

Your committee on city finances and budgets is only able, at this time, to report progress. At present the committee is engaged in the consideration of an outline defining the purpose and characteristics of a municipal budget prepared by Dr. Frederick A. Cleveland of the committee, and offered simply as a basis of discussion by the committee with a view of arriving at a comprehensive statement of the principles of budget making.

In April last the outline in question was sent to the members of the committee with the following letter:

"With a view to clearing the ground for further work of the committee your chairman had a conference with Dr. Frederick A. Cleveland, resulting in the enclosed memorandum intended, as its title indicates, as a basis of discussion of what the principles of budget making are. Will you kindly give the paper your careful consideration and advise me as promptly as you can,

"*First*, Whether, in your view, the outline correctly presents the subject, and, if not, what changes or corrections you would suggest.

"*Second*, Whether the outline is sufficiently comprehensive, and, if not, what are the omissions.

"I should also like your opinion as to how the outline as it may be finally agreed upon, can best be used by the committee in furtherance of its work. It has occurred to me that one method might be to invite papers, from members of the committee or others, on subjects suggested by the various headings, such papers to be presented at our annual meetings, and afterwards utilized by the committee for a volume on the subject, or otherwise. I should appreciate an expression of opinion on this point and any suggestion as to other methods of procedure.

"I am sending you, under separate cover, the latest report of the city controller of Philadelphia, showing balance sheets and general accounts as recommended by the Bureau of Municipal

Research definitively adopted by the controller as a part of the city accounting system."

The committee has not yet reached a consensus of opinion upon this paper and the uses to be made of it. For the information of members of the league interested in the subject, the chairman has prepared printed copies of the paper prepared by Dr. Cleveland.[1]

During the current year two, out of the three technical members of your committee, have been drafted by the President of the United States for service on his Commission on Economy and Efficiency—namely Messrs. Cleveland and Chase. The strenuous nature of their duties in this work for the national government has necessarily rendered them less available for the work of your committee.

Dr. W. W. Willoughby, the chairman of your committee on a "Program for the Improvement of Methods of Municipal Administration," whose work is so closely allied to that of the committee I have the honor to represent, is also a member of the President's commission. The league, however, is to be congratulated upon having furnished so many of its working members to this important committee, having to do, as it does, with questions of national scope.

The secretary read a paper on "Philadelphia's New Accounting Plan" by the controller of the city, the Hon. John M. Walton; and also presented a paper from Professor Charles E. Merriam on "The Chicago Commission on City Expenditures;" and Charles F. Gettenny, director of the Massachusetts Bureau of Statistics, read a paper on "The Results of the Requirements of Uniform Reports with Special Reference to Municipal Indebtedness." All three of which will be utilized by Dr. William B. Hadley in his volume in the National Municipal League Series on "City Finances."

A paper entitled, "Economy and Efficiency in Municipal Health Administration Work," by Selskar M. Gunn, of Boston, Assistant Professor of Sanitary Biology and Public Health, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, was read by M. N. Baker.[2]

The paper of Dr. Gunn was discussed at length by Dr. E. C. Levy, Health Officer of Richmond; Mr. Dana; Mr. Baker; Elliott H. Pendleton, Esq., Cincinnati; Mr. Oliver McClintock, of Pittsburgh.[3]

The Hon. Arthur S. Espey, of the Ohio State Senate read a paper on "Ballot Reform in Ohio."

ROUND TABLE LUNCHEON

Wednesday, November 15, 1:00 o'clock p.m.

John Stewart Bryan, Richmond, presiding.

John Ihlder, secretary of the National Housing Association, read a paper on "Private Housing and Public Health," which is published in the January number of the REVIEW. This interesting paper was discussed by Miss Elizabeth Cocke, of Richmond, President S. C. Mitchell, of the University of South Carolina, Dr. Walter S. McNeill, a member of the Richmond bar, Dr. Edward C. Levy, health officer of Richmond, and Chairman Bryan.

This discussion will be edited and published as a separate article in a future number of the REVIEW.

MUNICIPAL REFERENCE LIBRARIES AND ARCHIVES

The committee on municipal reference libraries in its report to the National Municipal League in November, 1910, showed the great need for municipal reference libraries and outlined a general scheme of organization which seems to be both sound and practical. The present committee was formed to continue the work and the question of municipal archives was regarded as so closely connected with this subject that the committee was instructed to consider it in connection with municipal reference libraries. The archives of our cities are, as a general rule, very poorly arranged and inadequately catalogued and indexed even where an attempt is made to do so. In many cases, the collection is incomplete. The material contained in the documents of the cities are invaluable and each city should see to it that its own documents are properly preserved, classified and indexed. The proper agency to do this work would seem to be the municipal reference library. We cannot urge too strongly that the municipal reference library not only be be made the depository of the municipal documents but that it also be made the agency for exchanging these documents with other cities. The charter revision commission of Baltimore recognized the desirability of this by providing in the proposed new charter that the Department of Legislative Reference be changed to the Department of Legislative Reference and City Archives, thus becoming the depository of city documents as well as the municipal reference library of the city.

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[1] This outline can be had of the secretary so long as the supply lasts.

[2] Dr. Gunn's paper appears in the January issue of the REVIEW.

[3] This discussion will be summarized for the April issue of the REVIEW by Mr. Baker.

This committee indorses the report made in November, 1910, and particularly the following recommendations contained in it:

1. That municipal reference libraries should be established in all large cities.

2. That as a general rule such libraries should be under the control of the public library.

3. That such libraries should be located in the city hall where feasible.

4. That the qualifications for the head of such a library should be a liberal education, with special training in political science, economics, municipal government, and methods of organization and administration, and he should be selected for merit alone.

5. That the head of the municipal reference library be selected by that method which, in the particular city, under the local conditions there prevailing, tend most completely to eliminate political considerations. In some cities, the most satisfactory results may be obtained by lodging the appointing power with the public librarian or library trustees. In other cities, conditions may make it advisable to have appointment made by a select, impartial and non-political board.

6. That the municipal reference library be made the agency for the exchange of municipal documents.

7. The functions of the library should not be restricted to any particular phase of work so long as that work relates to the collecting, collating, compiling and disseminating of data or information. It will also be one of the functions of the library to aid in the drafting of ordinances.

During the past year, St. Louis has been added to the cities having municipal reference libraries and there the recommendation contained in the report quoted above was followed, for the municipal reference library is under the control of the public library but has its offices in the city hall. As was pointed out by your former committee, this committee is decidedly of the opinion that no hard and fast rule can be laid down in regard to the method of organization. If the public library is under public control and is in sympathy with the work, it would seem to be the proper agency to carry on the work, but there are no doubt other cases where a separate and distinct organization, as in Kansas City, Mo., and Baltimore, would be preferable In Milwaukee the organization of the municipal reference library has been changed so as to place it under the public library.

There are at the present time five municipal reference libraries, all located in the city hall except the one in Minneapolis. The organization of these libraries is as follows:

Baltimore—Under the control of a non-political board consisting of the mayor, city solicitor, president of the Johns Hopkins University, president of the Municipal Art Society and president of the Merchants and Manufacturers Association.

Kansas City—Under the control of a board consisting of the mayor, president of the Commercial Club, president of the Industrial Council, president of the Kansas City Bar Association and president of the City Club.

Milwaukee—Under control of public library.

Minneapolis—Under control of public library.

In every case, the municipal reference librarian is to be selected for merit and fitness.

In addition to the above purely municipal reference libraries, it is proper to add that the Public Library of Grand Rapids, Mich., is doing considerable work along this line. The Universities of Wisconsin, Kansas and Illinois maintain municipal reference libraries for all the cities of those states, this being done under the university extension work. They are doing a very valuable work for their cities, and the Universities of California and Oregon, and Whitman College of Washington are considering the question and it seems only a question of time until other universities will undertake this work for the smaller cities and towns. The statistical bureaus of Boston, Chicago and Newark to some extent take the place of municipal reference libraries, but they do not undertake to perform all the functions which seem properly to belong to municipal reference libraries. Your committee is pleased to report that New York City is considering this question, the board of estimates having appointed a committee to investigate the subject and a report has been submitted as to the expediency of establishing such a library. It is not possible at this time to say what action will be taken.

Mayor Magee of Pittsburgh has written that he thinks it very essential to have such a library and that the Carnegie Library there is ready and anxious to undertake the work and will do so as soon as the funds are available. The Free Library of Philadelphia is also considering the question and it seems likely that steps will be taken in the near future to inaugurate the work there. Mayor Rick of Reading writes that he is in favor of such a library and the Public Library of Buffalo hopes to see one established there in the near future. Other favorable letters have been received both from mayors and librarians.

The committee is pleased to say that the movement for the establishment of municipal reference libraries for the past year has been very successful and that the future promises even greater progress.

In considering this question, the great need of having in this country a central bureau to gather and compile information available for all cities, has been forced upon your committee. The federal bureaus at Washington, particularly the Census Bureau, have rendered invaluable assistance along many lines, but a great deal yet remains to be done. What we have in mind is the establishment of a central municipal reference bureau which would serve all the cities of the country. It seems that this might be undertaken by the Census Bureau or some other department at Washington at a small expenditure as compared with the benefits and advantages to be derived. We would recommend, therefore, that the National Municipal League take such steps as deemed best to bring this matter to the attention of the bureau or department best equipped to undertake the work or to secure the legislation necessary to make this recommendation effective.

Horace E. Flack, *Chairman.*

Wednesday Afternoon Session

Wednesday, November 15, 3:00 o'clock p.m.

President Foulke in the chair.

A paper entitled "Preferential Voting," by Reginald Mott Hull, Secretary of the Cambridge Taxpayers' Association, of Massachusetts.

Mr. Hull's paper brought up to date so as to include the results of the latest elections will appear in an early issue of the Review, together with a résumé of the discussion on his paper and Dr. Rappard's.

The subject of The "Swiss Electoral System," was discussed by Dr. William E. Rappard, formerly of Switzerland, now of Harvard University.

Dr. Rappard's paper has been separately reprinted. Copies can be had upon application to him.

The Dinner

Wednesday, November 15, 1911, 8:00 o'clock p. m.

A delightful dinner of the members, delegates and local committee was held at the Jefferson Hotel, with the Hon. Wyndham R. Meredith of Richmond acting as toast master. In the course of his opening remarks Mr. Wyndham said: "I think you have come to us on an auspicious occasion. The conservatism which is a distinguishing mark of this state is changing, and we have recognized, as other parts of the country have recognized, that the antiquated methods under which we undertake to discharge municipal government will have to be done away with. But three lions will always stand in the path, and until they are overcome no commission, no form of municipal improvement can be successful. They are indifference, self-interest, and lack of public spirit."

Clinton Rogers Woodruff, the secretary of the League, discussed the militant side of civic advance, referring especially to the victories in Philadelphia, San Francisco, Cincinnati and Cleveland. He spoke of the note of hopefulness as being the distinguishing feature of the Richmond meeting, "hopefulness because of these very victories, hopefulness because the men who are at the head and front of the movement are not only men who represent in their personalities the protest against the old conditions, but the new idea and the new devotion to public duty.

Henry W. Wood, president of the Richmond Chamber of Commerce, in the course of an interesting address on the function of the Chamber, said: "The commercial and manufacturing interests are vitally interested in good municipal government. It means a great deal to the success of manufacturing and commercial operations to operate under efficient municipal management and just and reasonable taxation, which are only to be secured provided our municipal affairs are well and wisely managed."

Hon. William Dudley Foulke, concluded a striking address on the health of the city with these words: "We believe that our cities will be the places where democracy shall find its perfect fruitage and that dreams will come true, and I hope that many of us will have the opportunity of seeing that history written, and beholding the work of those who have borne ever so small a part in the battle for the maintenance of democratic institutions in the cities of our land."

Hon. Henry E. Hunt, mayor-elect of Cincinnati, touched upon the issues involved in the successful Cincinnati campaign, stating that the campaign as a whole "was based upon the principles of the League and the victory there was a victory of those principles." In the course of his address he said: "It occurred to us that the best advertisement we could give the city was to come here. It seemed the very fact that an elective officer should come to a meeting of this League was the best advertisement of the city he represented, and I think that it has been proven already."

City Attorney William R. Pollard, of Richmond, concluded the speeches with an account of the conditions in that city.

THURSDAY MORNING SESSION

Thursday, November 16, 1911, 9:30 o'clock a. m.

President Foulke in the chair.

A paper entitled "The Outline of a Model Street Railway Franchise," by Dr. Delos F. Wilcox, franchise expert of the Public Utilities Commission of New York City, and James W. S. Peters, of Kansas City, president of the City Club, Kansas City, was the first order of the day, and gave rise to a long, animated and most illuminating discussion which will be edited and made into an article for the April number of the REVIEW by H. P. Nichols, franchise expert of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment of New York City.

PRESIDENT FOULKE:—I am sorry to say that we will have to close this discussion, which I think is above the level of most debates of all other organizations. "Civic Education" is the next subject, and on that we wish to hear the report of the special committee by Arthur W. Dunn, of New York, author of "The Community and the Citizen," and secretary of the Public Education Association of New York City. Mr. Dunn's paper will be published in connection with the full report from the League's committee on "Civic Education."

THE SECRETARY:—I have two telegrams, which I would like to read.

Los Angeles, Cal.,
November 15, 1911.

Regret my inability to be present at this meeting; hope you will urge as many as possible to come to Los Angeles next year. Recent events here have made it even more desirable that the League come here to investigate and study one of the most interesting municipal problems in the United States. We promise a royal welcome, a real good time and a profitable meeting.—M. Lissner.

Omaha, Nebraska,
November 15, 1911.

Thank you for thinking of us, and, while planning ways and means of doing our municipal work better, we wish your convention success and the most desired results. Greetings from Nebraska.

Roscoe C. Ozman, Secretary League of Nebraska Municipalities.

MR. CHARLES W. ANDREWS (Syracuse): I know we are all anxious to express our thanks to our hosts, the citizens of Richmond, for their many kindnesses and courtesies. I therefore offer the following resolution:

Resolved: That the members of the National Municipal League wish to tender to His Excellency the Governor, to the Mayor, the Chamber of Commerce, the Civic Improvement League of Richmond, the Coöperative Educational Association of Virginia, and to the men and women of Richmond, thanks for their cordial reception and to express the League's appreciation of their gracious hospitality and of their assistance in promoting the work of this Association.

This resolution was unanimously adopted.

The next address will be one which we hoped to hear yesterday and is upon a matter of very considerable importance, "Civic Surveys," by Mr. Thomas H. Mawson, of Liverpool, England, author of "Civic Art."

The last paper of the morning, was on "The Prohibition Movement in the South," read by the Honorable William H. Thomas, of Montgomery, Alabama.

Judge Thomas's paper has been published in separate pamphlet form. Copies may be had directly of him at Montgomery, Alabama.

As the Round Table Luncheon which followed the morning session the report of the committee on liquor, Camillus G. Kidder, chairman, was read by Mr. Kidder, who presided and was made the subject of a lively and thoughtful debate.

The report follows:

COMMITTEE ON LIQUOR PROBLEMS

Your committee has been appointed to suggest a line of inquiry for the league to follow, keeping in mind its resources and limitations; to the end that a fairly definite programme may be outlined to be carried out during an indefinite period of time. Argument is not needed to show that the kind of effort the league should be able to apply to a study of the liquor question is sorely needed even at this late day; but a committee on the liquor problem would be largely ornamental unless the league is willing to buckle down to a settled plan of work, which would cost both time and money to carry out.

From the standpoint of the league the question of primary inportance is not that of creating ideal conditions but of the wise regulation of the liquor traffic as a problem in the government of cities. It may be accepted as a fact that for some time, perhaps indefinitely, liquor will continue to be sold in the cities. The query awaiting an answer is as to how the sale shall be carried on; under what auspices and under what restrictions.

SUGGESTIONS FOR A PROGRAM

1. *Licensing authorities.* The whole history of liquor legislation bears testimony to the difficulty of lodging the authority to issue licenses in the safest hands. It is the chief problem in regulation and one of the most perplexing matters in municipal government. Experiments have been numerous and for the greater part unsatisfactory, although some have proved much less so than others. No authoritative and exhaustive study, so far as the committee is aware, has been made of the results of the numerous experiments with different licensing authorities. Yet there is much instructive material at hand which should be sifted and presented as a guide to future legislation. The present situation in the states is chaotic.

Coupled with the question who should be entrusted with power to license liquor selling—a city council, the courts, commissioners appointed by the courts, a single commissioner, a local commission of several, a state commission, the police, etc., is that of the powers of licensing authorities to prescribe regulations in regard to location (restriction to certain areas), hours of sale, revocation of licenses, and whether under certain circumstances their authority should be made sufficiently elastic to meet conditions that cannot be anticipated by statutory law, such as permitting "factory canteens," issuing temporary licenses, etc., and by what means their regulations and rulings should be enforced. Another interesting question is whether there is any merit in lodging the power to revoke licenses in a separate authority.

2. *The classification of licenses.* Much of the trouble in regulating the liquor traffic arises from methods of classifying licenses which may directly invite evasion and prove onerous and unjust. It should be considered, whether it is possible to so classify licenses as to encourage the sale of the less alcoholic beverages. The question of club licenses is a separate problem.

3. *The limitation of licenses.* Should the number of licenses be limited by statutory enactment—so many of a certain class to so many inhabitants, or should the matter be allowed to regulate itself? The question presents many interesting points, and has never been adequately studied in the light of experience. Yet it is of great practical importance.

4. *License fees.* What standards should be adopted? What is the effect upon a municipality of exacting very high fees or very low fees; what is the effect upon the trade? The division of license fees.

5. *Local self-government in regulating the traffic.* Should a municipality be given some freedom in deciding for itself whether liquor may be sold at certain times or must the matter be left to the absolute prescription of the state? The

question will not down, especially in relation to Sunday selling. In cities with a large foreign contingent, the preponderance of public sentiment is doubtless in favor of Sunday selling; in other municipalities the weight of public opinion is the other way. Connected with this subject is that of granting to the licensing authorities, in municipalities of a certain population, freedom of action in special cases. Another problem which properly might be considered under this head is that of the right of a municipality to decide for itself whether the sale of liquor shall be licensed or not. The existence of such a right is hardly in dispute; but the question of how it should be exercised is far from being properly settled. Local option in cities is an active problem. There is enough experience at hand to afford rich material for an authoritative study. People argue about the subject largely on theory. A fact basis is wanted.

Your committee recommends that the question of "licensing authorities" be presented in the foreground and that it form the first subject of research. It is a question upon which there is the utmost diversity of opinion and upon which, as above stated, there is as yet no definite and final pronouncement. Under a strong and good licensing authority almost any statute is workable. It is believed that a thorough examination at first hand into the facts available would occupy profitably the attention of the new Committee for at least a year, perhaps longer. Your committee strongly urges that this topic should first enlist the attention of the league.

Respectfully submitted,
FRANCIS M. BURDICK, New York
AUGUSTUS RAYMOND HATTON,
Cleveland
JOHN KOREN, Boston
WILLIAM H. THOMAS,
Montgomery, Ala.
CAMILLUS G. KIDDER, Chairman,
Orange, N. J.
Committee.

Mr. Kidder will prepare a résumé of the discussion for the April REVIEW.

The various papers read before the League have been widely republished in leading dailies and weeklies. In whole or in part they will appear in future numbers of the REVIEW or in volumes of the National Municipal League Series.

On motion adjourned.

CLINTON ROGERS WOODRUFF,
Secretary.

NATIONAL
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THE MODERN CHAMBER OF COMMERCE

BY RYERSON RITCHIE[1]
Boston

THE modern chamber of commerce is a new element in urban development, for in less than two decades it has come to be recognized as the active agency by means of which the city builds itself—moulds its character, shapes its physical qualities and forms its social ideals. Prosperity has invariably followed the work of the efficient modern chamber of commerce; and it has secured good government and good public service in every city where it has been established. It touches the city's interests at so many points that one finds it difficult to express a few plain thoughts on so great a subject. I can only touch the edges of the intricate problem, and, in any case the San Francisco chamber of commerce can know it only through its intimate study and experience.

I shall not try to explain that the basis of your communal growth and prosperity is trade and industry—you know and recognize that fact. Nor need I say that your commercial vitality is a multiple of the units in your business life that is a natural sequence and the object of your organization. The chamber of commerce is a composite, not only of the city's wealth, but of its intelligence.

You will not think it my privilege to outline what you may do, for indeed no one can foretell that, but it is safe to say that given the loyalty and support of your better manhood, with all that that means, the San Francisco chamber of commerce can get what it goes after.

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[1] Mr. Ritchie, the author of this article (which is the substance of an address before the San Francisco chamber of commerce), is the leading exponent of the idea which he advances.

He was one of the two men who helped reorganize the Cleveland chamber of commerce on its splendid basis; he organized the Detroit board of commerce and was the active man in establishing the Boston chamber of commerce on its present lines of efficiency and activity. He has recently been in San Francisco performing a similar work. Both the Boston and San Francisco chambers represent the merger of existing organizations into large, vigorous, progressive bodies.

You want to take advantage of the experience of other organizations. You desire to build a solid foundation for your own, and to erect upon that foundation a superstructure that will endure. I come to you to say that you can improve upon the plans that have been followed in building chambers of commerce elsewhere. You can build an institution that will not only promote commerce but literally guide the course of the community.

If I seem tenacious of certain views you will remember that they have been fixed by study, observation and experience, covering a period of twenty-five years of service. I give you the point of view of those chambers of commerce that have passed through their formative stages and are now successfully established. I like to speak of them as chambers of citizenship, because the underlying motive of every one of them is the communal welfare rather than that of any particular interest or group of interests.

When the higher motives of service to the city inspire a chamber of commerce, when civic pride is greater than personal greed, the results are infinitely more advantageous from the standpoint of a wise and discriminating commercialism. Whatever opinion each one of you may have as to what your chamber of commerce may undertake, you should, as an organization, aim to win that indefinable yet very real element of power—public confidence.

Some people are blinded by prejudice and cannot see how a chamber of commerce may be an aggressive promoter of business and at the same time a faithful guardian of the public interest. A commercial body that is not a good servant of the community is not a good commercial body. And it is a short-sighted business or professional man who cannot see that the growth of the city, as a whole, profits his particular business or calling.

The San Francisco chamber of commerce will, of course, be precisely what you make it. It will take years to fashion and mature it—to make it fit for its great mission and work. It often takes many years to establish a small private business upon a sure foundation, and it may take years of time for this organization to attain the high position of deserving, by right, the unqualified support and confidence of every man of worth in the community, as well as the respect of the country at large. You will speed the completion of your formative work by keeping close, day by day, to the established principles and usage of business.

The problems of the city that bear upon its development—governmental, social, commercial—cannot be solved by the dignified adoption of resolutions, nor can they be disposed of by bursts of enthusiasm. Foresight and thoroughness are as necessary to a chamber of commerce as energy and enterprise. If sound business logic does not guide its course, then its course will be backward, not forward. If you follow the safe and sane principles of business in laying the foundation of your chamber, a great future is not only probable, it is absolutely certain.

You are to mass the business intelligence and enterprises of San Francisco, and if you direct these resistless forces into constructive channels, you will discriminate between those undertakings that have a substantial up-building value and those that are merely emotional, temporary or intermittent. You will make the work of your chamber as good as your bond. The great merchant, manufacturer or banker does not say overmuch, but he judiciously analyzes and weighs every enterprise before he enters upon it and he makes certain that he can carry it to a successful issue. It is not uncommon for associations of business men in this country, to assume serious undertakings, and pass resolutions on the most important matters, without due reflection. The modern chamber of commerce should possess and treasure that priceless jewel—consistency.

The San Francisco of today is what you and your forbears have made it, largely by their individual enterprise; the prestige and reputation of the future San Francisco depend not alone upon what you do as individuals, but upon what you do through an organism of which each one of you is a part. In the formation of business character, much depends upon inherent qualities, but example and environment play an important part. So it is with a chamber of commerce, and many of them go wrong at the very outset.

American cities everywhere are organizing boomers' clubs, boosters' leagues and chambers of hustlers—all supposed to be conducted by sensible business men. Some of these new associations go headlong into the booming and boosting business as if the prosperity of the community could be built upon bombast and exaggeration. Such bodies, obviously undignified and insincere, quickly become impotent. Which has profited more—the city of spectacular patriotism or the city that has the real thing?

When the honorary commercial commissioners of Japan visited this country and were so handsomely entertained and escorted throughout the United States by the associated chambers of commerce of the Pacific coast, they were received cordially by the cities visited. A distinguished American university professor, who had been an attaché of the Japanese party throughout the journey, speaking of the reception of the visitors by the various commercial bodies, said, in an address at Chicago, that "the United States is a nation of braggarts." That statement is not true; but then the professor was speaking of the bragging voiced by commercial bodies. Every one of the fifty or more metropolitan cities unblushingly boasted to its guests of its superiority over others.

The concentration of work upon those things that are vital is a lesson to be learned of the business man. The scattering of energies upon a multitude of projects leads to places that are said to be paved with good intentions. The incapacity of a chamber of commerce to make a success of its undertakings, saps its vitality and destroys its reputation for effectiveness.

The business man's association should not undertake a contract when it cannot deliver the goods. The accomplishment of one thing at a time will build up your strength and increase your capacity so that your range of operation will be expansive. Multitudinous suggestions will be made to you—many of them excellent and hard to set aside—but for the sake of your very life, do not allow your good intentions to run away with your better judgment.

The chamber of commerce should be ever watchful lest self-seeking make inroad upon its independence of character. As your prestige grows, certain interests will ingeniously seek your aid; and you should refuse that aid if, in rendering it, you become champions of self-seeking interests.

If in the rebuilding of San Francisco, every property owner had patriotically tried to fit his particular building into one general plan, so that in structural diversity you would have architectural harmony, you would have had even a finer result than you have; but here and there the mass is scarred by the touch of selfishness, and time alone will efface these scars. So it is with the character of a chamber of commerce.

Every association conducted to promote a private interest has a right to support or defend that interest, but it is not its province to speak for the whole business community. Why do we resent the dabbling in legislation or in public affairs by a money power or a labor trust? Simply because we know that self-seeking is often hostile to the public good. Before today chambers of commerce have been caught napping, and have been "worked" by powerful influences for personal benefits and profits.

If a chamber of commerce be made the tool of any private interest, its influence will count for little, since people will suspect "a nigger in the woodpile" in whatever it undertakes and will ask, "Who's back of that?" It is only when the chamber takes its proper place as the guardian of the city's commercial credit and stability, the representative of business as a whole, that it engenders a spirit of confidence and respect that gives it power and influence.

Conventions are believed to be valuable as an advertisement for the city and profitable to business; consequently your convention bureau is supported in order to bring conventions to San Francisco. I mention this subject because I know that it interests you, but more especially because you ought to estimate the comparative value of all your undertakings.

Why is it that a chamber of commerce will work itself into a frenzy at the prospect of getting a great national convention for the city, at the same time the location of a modest industrial enterprise will hardly arouse a flutter of excitement?

Let me make a comparison for the sake of consistency. Suppose that twenty thousand visitors come to San Francisco to attend a big convention—what is the effect? The whole town is put into an uproar. The streets and public places become congested. The hotels, theatres and transportation lines may profit for a day or two, but the strain, the wear and tear, the damage to property, the interference with regular business—these and other things seem to be lost sight of. I have no doubt the convention has good value as an advertising medium, but every merchant knows that an abnormal condition in the city is not to be preferred to the regular and steady course of business. But aside from all that—figure it out for yourselves—the addition of one little industry that brings fifty families to San Francisco, whose members live and move about three hundred and sixty-five days in the year, is of more actual profit to business and more real benefit to the city than the sudden influx and outgo of the delegates to a great convention, with all their baggage and banners.

Inadequate support of a chamber of commerce is a common fault among the cities of this country. By some unaccountable perversity the business men do not furnish good tools to their chambers of commerce. Even here in San Francisco you have advocates of a cheap membership. There is not a single chamber of commerce in this country that could do its work effectively short of double the dues and five times the number of your low-grade membership. From a cursory examination, I can see that increased funds are necessary in order to continue the work already in hand; but your work ought to be extended into every field of action that is worth cultivating.

This is neither the time nor place to suggest what expert departments you may advantageously institute, because that is the duty assigned to your board of directors, but I may venture to refer to one that is not yet established—the industrial department. You know that industrial growth and the conditions governing industrial development vitally affect San Francisco. In this and other departments you will need expert managers, men who are fit for their jobs; men who can make good and earn their salaries. You will be obliged to delegate the technical work of important departments and committees to men fitted and employed for such work. That is what you do in your own business—why not do it in your chamber of commerce? The limitations of your chamber are fixed by you. Make it effective—make it able to do big things. Every dollar spent upon a weak chamber of commerce is wasted. Every dollar put into an efficient chamber of commerce pays a good dividend.

If you lived in Cleveland and desired to join the chamber of commerce you would be obliged to be of good business or professional standing, and, if elected, to pay $125 for your admission and membership—not as a firm or corporation, but as an individual—and, in addition, $25 per year. The only direct benefit you would get would be the privilege of working for the chamber and the city. The indirect benefit would come from increased population and more business. Since the Cleveland chamber of commerce was founded in 1893, that city has risen from the tenth place to the seventh and in my opinion she will rise to the sixth place during this decade. What has all this to do with membership dues? Simply this, that the Cleveland chamber of commerce has had ample funds to do effective work; from its surplus, it has built a fine home for itself and today has a waiting list of applicants for membership. Put these things together and you have the answer to your question. It is simply out of the question for you to build the greater San Francisco without fortifying your chamber of commerce with ample resources.

For your encouragement I may say that when a chamber of commerce proves its worth it never lacks support, but, if the truth must be told, the number of American chambers of commerce that are in the first rank, as to standing and efficiency, is ridiculously small.

Like those good resolutions you have adopted in your commercial bodies, much of what I have said may be forgotten with the morning; knowing this, I have been trying to find a concrete example in proof of my theories, and I believe I have found it.

In the five states touching Lake Erie there are five cities that are competitors of each other: Cincinnati, Buffalo, Cleveland, Pittsburgh and Detroit. The development and growth of these cities within the last two decades has been responsive to and in consonance with public spirit, as expressed by their respective commercial bodies. This deduction is unmistakable to anyone having an intimate knowledge of the local influences that have affected the development of these five midland cities. I shall rank the cities as they stood in the population tables at the beginning of each decade:

1890		1900		1910	
Cincinnati	296,908	Cleveland	381,768	Cleveland	560,663
Cleveland	261,353	Buffalo	352,387	Pittsburgh	533,905
Buffalo	255,664	Cincinnati	325,902	Detroit	465,766
Pittsburgh	238,617	Pittsburgh	321,616	Buffalo	423,715
Detroit	205,876	Detroit	285,704	Cincinnati	364,463

The standing of these five cities is in exact line with the relative efficiency of their respective organizations, considering each a unit. I know these cities—the spirit that inspired the energies and fired the ambitions of the more successful ones. I know the causes that hindered progress and sent, within fifteen years, the proud old city of Cincinnati, from the head to the foot of the class. And Buffalo is next to the foot.

Cincinnati has not yet succeeded in uniting her commercial bodies or her men in one comprehensive body: she has lost place through her own neglect. Clashing interests and factious rivalries, touching public questions, have hindered Buffalo's progress. Both Cincinnati and Buffalo have needed the large vision of an inclusive chamber of commerce; they have needed it to unite men and to formulate, organize and carry to effect those enterprises that build cities.

The star performer is Detroit, for it began at the foot of the column ten years ago and is now third, showing the highest percentage of growth. Cleveland heads the column with a population now over six hundred thousand. Cleveland and Detroit more than doubled their population within twenty years, but, during the last ten years, Detroit gained more in actual number than Cleveland.

When the Pittsburgh chamber of commerce was reorganized four or five years ago it followed Cleveland's model and is now one of the more efficient of our great modern chambers. Pittsburgh has risen from the fourth to the second position within ten years. The Pittsburgh chamber promoted commercial growth, improved industrial conditions and in other important particulars has done fine service for the common welfare.

The assertion cannot be fairly disputed that Cleveland and Detroit won the race over their rivals because they had the advantage of united, vigorous, well directed effort. Why the great iron ore business should center in Cleveland, instead of in Buffalo, is not accounted for by geographic or economic considerations, for Buffalo had these advantages. There is no economic or commercial reason why Detroit should be the preferred center of the automobile, stove, paint or pharmaceutical industries as against any of her rivals.

Detroit passed Cincinnati and Buffalo and gained perceptibly on Cleveland and Pittsburgh during the last decade. The Detroit board of commerce devoted itself chiefly to industrial development, with the result that the city has, since 1903 grown faster than Cleveland or any other midland city. The natural attractiveness of Detroit, its low tax rate and public debt and its excellent government were factors in this remarkable development, and, of course, the most was made of these in its promotive work.

Cleveland was the first American city to establish a modern chamber of commerce. The Cleveland chamber demonstrated that united effort in a public cause breeds a progressive spirit, and infuses new life and new enthusiasm into the whole community. Eighteen years ago Cleveland saw that the making of the city was not the work of the individual—however useful that may be—but of an inclusive society of individuals. It discovered that merchants, manufacturers, bankers, lawyers or physicians would, acting separately as classes, accomplish little, since each class would naturally work for itself. So it united these classes and today the Cleveland chamber of commerce is the finest model of organized efficiency and influence in this country. Its coöperative spirit became a contagion that energized the whole life of the community and set an example to other metropolitan cities.

Before 1920 Cleveland will have passed St. Louis. Why? Simply because St. Louis is not organized to thrive and work as a unit—Cleveland is so organized. St. Louis is as favorably situated as to commerce and industry and as strong financially as Cleveland, but its energies are divided, not united. During the last ten years Cleveland gained 180,000 people; St. Louis but 120,500. In the running Cleveland is now ahead and St. Louis hasn't time enough to recuperate her forces and win the race.

If San Francisco were put into the comparison, she would have been at the head of the class in 1890; in 1900 she would have ranked third; and last year Pittsburgh and Detroit got ahead. San Francisco now stands fourth, but all the world knows why. Tonight you are looking forward. Do I need to argue with any man in this room to induce him to take his coat off and do something for this chamber? Your first need is more men and your next more money.

Maybe some of you think that the difference you have had among yourselves, the clashing of corporate interests, the circulation of truths and slanders about you, the exposures and scandals that have been given widespread publicity by eminent muck-rakers, have hurt San Francisco and set her in a class by herself. It may be that some of the scars are deep-seated and hard to eradicate, but it would do you good to live for awhile in the peaceful Quaker city, or the Hub; I am sure you would come back to breathe the ozone of your home city with a new sense of satisfaction.

For my part, I do not believe that San Francisco differs temperamentally from other cities. Like you, they all have their trials and troubles, but some of them work together just as if they had none. Such bodies as the San Francisco chamber of commerce bring men together in the common cause of city building, in which all have an equal interest.

The Chicago association of commerce during the last four years has done more than all the city clubs, reform leagues, and voters' unions of that city to unite men and to infuse business ethics into municipal government. Already the Boston chamber of commerce, but three years old, has to be reckoned with in the conduct of the city's business. The Boston chamber has some excuse for believing that the Hub will be a modern Utopia by 1915.

This is an epoch-making year for San Francisco. Three momentous incidents have taken place almost simultaneously. The President of the republic broke ground for the site of the Panama Pacific Exposition; the business men of San Francisco converted four representative organizations into one; and you have had an election. The exposition is to show the world that "San Francisco knows how;" the chamber of commerce is to show what it can do; and the election—but Mayor-elect Rolph and his cabinet are here.

You, gentlemen of the city government and chamber, who celebrate the birth of a united commercial organization, constitute the life-blood of the city. The members of the chamber own and conduct the great commercial, industrial and financial institutions upon which the people depend for their employment and prosperity. Directly or indirectly, they pay a large proportion of the cost of local government. They support the benevolent and social institutions. Their enterprise and prosperity reflect and mould the tone and character of the community. The whole city is a dependency upon you, to be largely shaped and made as you will. Therefore, your chamber of commerce may fairly be regarded as the mainstay of San Francisco. You have already shown what you can do. There is not in the world's history any finer achievement than the rebuilding of this city out of the ashes of its destruction five years ago.

Your people want the business-like view and the business-like solution of public problems, and if your chamber of commerce is absolutely worthy of their confidence, they will seek and be guided by its opinions. On the one hand it may be said that it is not an ideal condition when a democratic people, with sovereign rights, look to any class of citizens for protection and aid. The business men of the city form a class, and we know very well that in that class business honesty has ever had a hard fight against the avarice of business. But, on the other hand, honesty always has been, and must stand to the end of time, as the keystone of the arch of commerce. No class can be more safely trusted with public responsibilities; moreover, none is more respected.

COMMISSION GOVERNMENT: ITS STRENGTH, AND ITS WEAKNESS

BY MARTIN A. GEMÜNDER[1]

Columbus, Ohio

ONE of the most welcome signs of the day is the very apparent interest taken in problems relating to municipal government. Everywhere we note clubs and commercial bodies urging for a better administration of city affairs through a realization, though a rather belated one, of the fact that a good city government has its root in the patriotic activities of the citizens themselves. This realization is of great importance. If however the people are really to govern they must be prepared to assume in full all duties and responsibilities connected therewith and give time, attention and *practical work* for the common good. Dabbling is of little use, and under no circumstances should enthusiasm cloud sober judgment and a careful weighing of all sides of a question. It is not at all uncommon, just now, for organizations to pass resolutions endorsing this or that form of municipal government merely upon the overconfident statements of one or two enthusiasts. The cool, practical business sense so characteristic of our people seems to depart when municipal affairs are under consideration, so that we have the well known state of affairs, of innumerable individuals passing without hesitation upon a course of municipal administration, who would hesitate, on the score of inexperience, to prescribe an outline of daily routine for a corner grocery. It is not at all realized that the economical and efficient administration of the affairs of a city, with all its wealth of detailed work, is a large problem the solution of which will tax the combined best efforts of the serious student and the practical expert, and even their conclusions are subject to the veto of Father Time. The reading of a few books, magazine articles and newspaper squibs furnishes no short cut to a knowledge of municipal needs. When it is attempted to select a form of government for a city a task of great seriousness is undertaken. Every phase of the question should be scrutinized with care before any conclusion is to be accepted as final. A contrary method can only be classed as a reckless one, that cannot possibly lead to permanent betterment.

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[1] Mr. Gemünder has for fifteen years been the secretary of the Trustees of the Sinking Fund of Columbus, Ohio. His figures relative to Des Moines are drawn from the annual report of that city for the year ending March 31, 1910, pages 62, 63 and 146 for the year ending March 31, 1911; and from the state and city section of the *Commercial and Financial Chronicle.*

The novelty of the day is the commission form of government for cities. Throughout the land individuals and clubs are advocating its adoption. The value of the evidence on which this advocacy is based it is now our purpose to examine. About a decade ago Galveston, a city of about 36,000 inhabitants, was visited with a great calamity. Death and desolation reigned, and succor of the most practical kind became a matter of imperative necessity. The prevailing form of city government was not adapted to prompt work, consequently after some delay, it was superseded by a government consisting of a council of five men into whose hands was placed complete administrative control. As can well be imagined the men selected at such a crisis would be of the very best obtainable. It is not inconceivable that had the city administration at this time been placed in the hands of one man, allowing him to select his own associates, that the outcome would have been the same. When the period of reconstruction began, the United States government gave assistance through its engineers, and the state of Texas relinquished to the city of Galveston for the period of seventeen years as a substantial help, all of its ad valorem taxes collected in Galveston County. All reports indicate that Galveston has counteracted a great calamity in a manner worthy of great praise.

In the meanwhile the organization of cities in general throughout the United States was in a deplorable condition. Doubtless there were many cities that were well organized and honestly and efficiently governed, nevertheless it will hardly be contradicted that in the majority of instances looseness and inefficiency prevailed. Investigation will disclose that in innumerable cities the government consists of a loose aggregation of officials and administrative boards; a conglomerate built on the rule of thumb; the growth of local conditions many of them vicious, and following no scientific plan of organization whatever. The result, as might be expected, is dilatory and expensive work even when the officials themselves are good men. In addition to this the drawing of national party lines in local affairs is constantly felt as a blight and a source of evil.

The success in Galveston, by its commission was heralded throughout the land. It was therefore not unnatural that the thought would occur to many "If the commission plan has proved such a success in Galveston why will it not also work advantageously in our town?" Following this line of reasoning and after a period of more or less of investigation, one community after another has followed in the wake of Galveston, until at the present writing there are about 150 minor cities, towns and villages operating under some form akin to the so-called commission plan. Of this number but four show as high as 100,000 inhabitants in the last census. The largest, Oakland, California, has about 150,000 inhabitants. In these four cities the commission government has been in operation less than two years. The large majority of the communities however are small towns and villages mainly located in the west and south. So far reports, based however on a very limited experience, indicate that the change in government was a success, and the glowing statements of wonderful improvement are the subject of many a magazine article. Nor are these particular cities slow about making known their merits. As previously stated, the novelty of the day is the commission form of government. Information concerning it is eagerly sought throughout the country, and the cities using it are quick at recognizing advertising value. So they vie with one another as to which can make the most attractive statements in order to boom their own town. This information, so freely given, has evidently convinced many good citizens that a panacea for municipal ills has been at last found.

The arguments usually advanced in support of the commission plan are of two kinds: first, that it has proven itself a success in actual practice, and second, that it follows the line of private business organization. Before examining these arguments it might be well to concede in the beginning, that for small cities, towns and villages, the commission form would in all probability work well. In these communities departmental work is often so meager that it becomes necessary to combine several offices in the hands of a single individual. The work in any one department being too small to warrant the payment of any material salary. It is not uncommon, for example, to find the office of auditor combined with that of city clerk, and the secretaryship of several administrative boards. The very smallness of the amount of work itself naturally forces a condensation in official organization.

Again, citizens aspiring to office in these localities are as a rule well known to most of the people, so that the voter in casting his ballot does so with reasonable knowledge of the qualifications of the candidate. When however, it becomes necessary to organize large cities the problem changes. Here the work of departments becomes enormous, making it necessary not only to appoint superintendents and sub-superintendents; but also large forces of clerks who work at specifically outlined tasks, and furthermore no matter how short the ballot may become, the candidates for offices of great power and trust, are little or not at all known to a large majority of the voters, so bringing into the field a new risk. No one has as yet seriously suggested to place a state government in the hands of five men, yet it should be constantly borne in mind that a city like Cleveland, for example, is in population, revenues to handle and communal problems to solve, far larger than many of our states. It so becomes evident that forms of organization suitable for comparatively small urban communities are not necessarily adapted to the needs of the large ones, and that material modifications will have to be undergone in order that serious mishap may be avoided.

What now is meant by the commission form of government? Broadly speaking, it is a form of government under which a city council of three, five or more members elected at large is entrusted with the entire city government. It is legislative, executive and judicial. It decides what money shall be spent, spends it, and is its own auditor and legal adviser. The initiative, referendum, recall, nonpartisan ballot, nomination by petition and like features are not necessarily a part of this form of government. These measures may be made adjuncts to any form of municipal government whatever. Galveston and Houston, Texas, have neither the initiative, referendum nor recall, whereas in Ohio, where there are no commission governed cities, the initiative, referendum and nomination by petition are now a part of every city's government. Therefore in discussing the relative merits of the commission and other forms of government it becomes largely a question of the number and powers of the officials to whom it is purposed to entrust the city's welfare.

Let us glance briefly at the argument put forward in favor of the commission plan. First, we are told that it has proved itself in practice. How is this proof established? As far as the general public is concerned, almost exclusively by statements appearing in newspapers and periodicals and perhaps in some information received through personal correspondence. Where does the data come from? Trace it back to its source, and you will find that it almost invariably emanates from the officials in charge. In fewer words, correct or incorrect, the evidence consists of the *ex parte* statements of interested officials. What are they worth? To the practical expert, *prima facie*, very little. Having had numerous occasions for examining the official annual statements of many cities under all sorts of governments, and of listening to campaign arguments advanced by those aspiring to election or reëlection he has learned that statements and speeches, even when given in good faith, are strongly colored by bias, and frequently given with no knowledge of practical conditions which oftentimes forced the hands of predecessors. Many a move that was at first hailed as an improvement was subsequently, upon a riper experience, shownto be a mistake. Although an expert may read any given statement with interest he yet holds it with a light hand until it has undergone thorough scrutiny. This is exactly the course followed in private business. A owns a factory. B a friend, owns a similar one in another city. B writes A that by a change in his plan of organization he has very greatly improved his showing. This statement would interest A, but as can well be imagined, he does not at once reorganize along the lines indicated by B. There are a few things of which he would first desire to satisfy himself. First, what sort of organization had B before? Second, what is the character of B's improvement in its concrete items? To determine these points he would find it necessary to make a careful practical comparison, in concrete detail, between B's factory and his own. On the results of this analysis would depend his subsequent action. Is there any reason why municipal affairs should be handled differently? Granted, however, for the sake of argument, that the statements published are all true; what do they prove? Merely this: That the particular city under consideration has bettered its condition since it adopted the commission government. This is merely a relative proposition, and has no definite value for reformers in other cities. The point is, not whether this or that city has now a better form than it had before, but the question is how does this new form compare with forms prevailing in other cities or with *other obtainable forms?*

It is frequently asserted by advocates, that the people of commission governed cities would not consent to return to "the old form." The impression left with many is that *the* old form is some definite, universal form resembling their own, whereas in fact it is only the particular local form, which may or may not coincide with forms prevailing elsewhere. The foregoing statement should be amended by substituting the word "their" for the word "the" in order that there may result no false impression. Again, another point should not be lost sight of. When the new form of government was adopted the whole public was interested. For the first time in the history of many of these cities the people themselves took an active interest in the selection of officials and in the results of their work. It is therefore certainly a fair question how much of the improvement is due merely to the change in form and how much is due to the awakening of the public conscience. Read the statements issued by the socialist government of Milwaukee and you will at once be led to the belief that there has been a change from corrupt, wasteful government to honest and efficient administration, at the same time there was no change in form of organization at all.

In endeavoring to determine the causes of a given result all factors involved should receive due credit. It is unscientific to assign the result to any particular factor to the exclusion of the rest. Estimating all published evidence at its full value the careful investigator is forced to conclude that the success of commission government has not yet been inductively established. Unproved evidence based upon unripe experience is not to be cited as proof conclusive.

The second proof offered in defense of the plan is that it follows the line and principles of private business organizations. Let us examine this somewhat in detail. How does a private corporation organize? The stockholders elect a board of directors and into their hands is practically placed the entire management of the business. What assurance have the stockholders that their trust will not be abused? What checks operate on the conduct of their representatives? First, there is the check of a man's individual conscience. Second, there is the fear of the law which punishes criminal acts, and third, most potent of all, is the check of self-interest. As we all know, directors are always stockholders, frequently very large stockholders, and at times even the only stockholders. It will at once become evident that in managing the business as directors they are practically managing their own business. The director gains in wealth as the business prospers and loses directly as the business suffers. In short his personal gains and losses are dependent upon the results of the business ventures.

There is a further fact that should not be forgotten, and that is that stockholders at all times know whether dividends go up or down, or if the dividends are converted into an assessment. Here we have a reasonably close connection between self-interest and the conducting of a trust. But in spite of these checks upon directors we are painfully aware that trusts are frequently violated. It is not uncommon to note the milking of stockholders by the voting of inordinate salaries to particular individuals, and furthermore it is nothing unusual for a board of directors to wreck the corporation for the benefit of some outside business in which their interests are greater.

Many of us are looking forward to the day when the laws of the state will be so changed either in the restriction of the powers of the directors or by some other provisions, so that minority stockholders will receive their just due. In brief the tendency in private organization is rather in the line of curtailment of official power than in its extension. Taking now this method of private organization and applying it to municipal organization, what would we have? We would have the citizens as stockholders electing a board of directors known as the city council, in whose hands likewise would be placed the entire management of the city. What are in this instance the checks against wrong doing? Exactly as in the case of the private corporation, we have the check of individual conscience and the fear of the criminal statutes. But when we have mentioned these checks we have practically mentioned all. The powerful check of identity of individual with corporate interests is absent. Although public officials as citizens are presumably stockholders yet it must be evident to all that their interest as such stockholders is so infinitely small as compared with their interests as individuals, that for all practical purposes it is a negligible quantity. In fact this method of organization would be exactly the same as though a private corporation were to elect its board of directors from non-stockholders, which to say the least, would be deemed an unsafe procedure. As a matter of fact the main reason stockholders have for trusting their directors lies in the fact that the directors are themselves interested in the business in a financial way. No man who has ever given governmental organization any serious thought would dream of organizing a city after this fashion. How to make the interests of the governing class approach in identity that of the governed, has been the basis of discussion in all theories of government and constitutional conventions. The writing of many volumes has still left the question somewhat open.

But it becomes a matter of necessity that our cities be governed. What is to be done? So far bitter practical experience has dictated but one course, and that is, in the absence of those natural and automatic checks which maintain and are operative in private business, it has become a matter of absolute necessity to establish *artificial checks.* What is their character? First, when public officials are placed in power they are not given unlimited authority. On the contrary, they are directed to do only certain specific things and in a certain specific manner. This is generally known as the theory of delegated power. Second, as the connection between officials and the people is extremely loose, as it almost approaches impossibility for citizens to check up with any degree of certainty the tremendous work carried on in municipal departments, in electing officers we endeavor to so arrange matters that officials will be a check one upon the other; or, in other words, we establish cross-checks. This method is generally spoken of as the theory of divided functions. Reading some of the statements issued today by some book men and doctrinaries one would be led to the belief that the theories of delegated powers and divided functions or "checks and balances" were obsolete, and no longer of consequence. Whereas in fact they find their roots deep in the nature of human beings and must exist until the human race has attained a far higher standard than at present prevails. Every private corporation of any magnitude whatever establishes in its routine the most complete system of checks and balances that it is possible for it to devise. Examined on the score of business principles, a commission government would find its analogy in a private business which elects its directors from non-stockholders though limiting their power. It would be hard indeed to find stockholders who would organize their business on any such basis. Analysis clearly shows that commission government has not its counterpart in private business organization, there being a material difference on a very vital point.

There is another cross-check in municipal administration that experience has demonstrated the wisdom of establishing. This has reference to the management of a city's debt. It has been found the prevailing practice of most cities to shirk a proper provision for the payment of its outstanding bonded debt in order to provide more spending money for current purposes. For example, a given outstanding debt might require an annual contribution to the sinking fund of $500,000. Examination into the workings of many cities will disclose that the administration instead of levying this sum would proceed to reduce it by $300,000. This would mean an extra $300,000 to spend with no corresponding increase in the tax rate. Or the administration might go further and prior to an election, reduce the levy by $500,000 thus giving the extra $300,000 for spending money and at the same time actually reducing the tax rate. This is one of the easy and very common ways for throwing dust into the eyes of the people with no discomfort to the money spender. The people as a rule are innocent of any knowledge pertaining to sinking fund matters, and as the bonds themselves would not mature in the near future the scheme is a safe one for the officials in charge.

Refunding is also an easy and safe method for relieving officials from the need of economizing. This makeshift of riding on the sinking fund has proven a very tempting one, of which a great many cities have availed themselves. In Ohio this form of misfeasance was first brought to public notice some thirty-five years ago, in Cincinnati. As a result there was appointed in that city a board of sinking fund trustees who were given entire control of the liquidation of the city's debt. The law specifically prescribed that whatever the trustees certified as necessary to levy for interest and sinking fund purposes must be placed in the council tax levy ordinance first, in preference to any other item in the budget and for the full amount certified. Thus there was taken out of the hands of the regular administrative officers who levied money and spent it, the power of controlling interest and sinking fund levies. The cities of Columbus and Toledo shortly afterward followed the plan adopted by Cincinnati, and in 1902 when the general code of the state was formulated, the appointment of sinking fund trustees became a general law of the state applicable to all municipal organizations.

It must be clear to all that levies for interest and sinking fund purposes are *current expense* just as much as are police pay rolls. To shift them on future generations savors strongly of gross injustice. But we are told that if we adopt the commission government we will have none of these bad men in office. We will only have such men in control as will finance a city justly and in accordance with the moral code. Let us see. Take the city of Des Moines as an example. The figures here given are from the annual report for the year ending March 31, 1911. The bonded debt of this city, excluding the park purchase debt, is $1,256,000. The annual interest charge is $51,380. The computed annual sinking fund charge is $65,425 or a total annual charge for interest and sinking fund obligations of $116,805. Calculating in the usual manner, the accumulated sinking fund from the date of issue of each series up to 1911 and we arrive at a total of $455,935, which sum should appear in the sinking fund for application upon the principal of the outstanding debt. Add to this the $51,380, interest to be provided for and we have the grand total of $507,315. The Des Moines report does not contain the term "sinking fund," but instead the term "bond and interest fund," is used. This in the report is given as $68,487.23, which indicates a shortage in this department of $438,827.77.

Doubtless the major part of this shortage was inherited from the old administration, nevertheless it becomes an interesting question "What has the new government done in the line of correcting former errors, and making proper provision for the maintenance of the city's credit?" During the last eight years preceding 1908 the interest and sinking fund levies ranged between 3 mills and 4.5 mills or an average of 3.675 mills. During the years 1908, 1909 and 1910 the levies were 3.9, 1.3 and 2.6 mills respectively, or an annual average of 2.6 mills. In 1909 this levy was made so small that it fell far short of yielding even the current interest charge to say nothing of making the proper sinking fund provision. Unless the printed report for the year March 31, 1911, fails to correctly exhibit the financial administration of the new government, there is but one inference to be drawn, and that is that the new government like the old has systematically evaded its moral obligation, and is playing fast and loose with the city's credit. On a tax valuation of $19,551,000, the levy for interest and sinking fund purposes during 1910 should have been 5.9 mills instead of 2.6 mills.

In addition to this levy sound financial administration would make it imperative to levy in each year an additional amount in order that the inherited shortage would be gradually absorbed. Had this been done the tax rate of the new government would have very materially exceeded that of the old, a circumstance by the way that would hardly appeal to the officials in charge and especially in the face of an impending election. Now as the members of the new government are reputable men, how is this sort of administration to be explained? Simply on the score of certain traits in human nature which make themselves felt whenever time is ripe. When the city changed to the commission government great things were promised and great things were expected. The new officials endeavored to make good and in a manner that would be most apparent to the people. A new city hall, a handsome bridge and a beautiful river bank were among the most important results. But great things mean great outlays. Extra money means extra taxes. Increased taxes were not among the great things promised or expected. As in the eyes of most citizens improved government manifests itself mainly in reduced tax burdens. The government was thus confronted with a problem. How to get the great things without increased taxes. In other words "how to have the cake and eat it too." This problem is old. It has been faced time and again by nearly every city in the country. Des Moines proceeded to solve it, and solve it it did, exactly as most other cities have solved it generations ago. The solution was easy. It consisted simply in diverting money into the hands of the spending department which should have been saved up against the principal of the debt. "Let our successors worry over the debts when they mature." This is an old maxim.

Not only has the new government failed to brace up and strengthen its savings account, but it has further aided in its depletion. In the administration of its debt, Des Moines compares very unfavorably with many other cities that have not had the advantage of being governed by a commission. Space does not permit of an examination into the details of many of the statements issued by commission governed cities. It will however be needful to say that many of their methods in every day work hailed and applauded as wonderful improvements are either old in many other cities or are crude and adapted to small town conditions only. From the foregoing statement it will be noted that cross-checks are of some use even in cities governed by commission.

Glancing over the pamphlets issued by the commission government propaganda, prominent among the benefits promised we find the following: "It insures honest and economical government." It does not take much of an expert to detect the fallacy of any such claim. No government whatever, no matter what its forms, will *insure* honest and efficient government, for no matter what the form of government may happen to be, it must be administered by human beings, and as long as they are fallible the results will fall short of what is desired. We have well nigh perfect systems of accounting, but as long as your bookkeeper is negligent, incompetent or dishonest your results will be correspondingly deficient. The counties in the state of Ohio and perhaps in many other states have for generations been governed by a commission of three members elected at large exercising large legislative and executive powers. Up to the present time no one has ever noticed any particularly brilliant results attending their efforts.

In the planning of a city government it is not wise to have in view ideal men, nor the more than ordinarily good men that come into office at those spasmodic times when the public is temporarily aroused. Rather must we have in view that average class of citizens which will control when affairs have returned to the routine swing. In spite of the statements recently pushed forward it becomes necessary to impress the fact that *no form of government can insure success*. All that can be accomplished is to frame such a form of government as will *permit* of honest and efficient work and at the same time make due allowance for certain tendencies in human nature that need restraint. The remainder rests with the people themselves. They will then get as good government as they deserve. The commission government has not as yet demonstrated its final worth. The cities adopting it are too small to set any pace for the large communities, and those cities among them which have attained the size of 100,000 or more have operated under this form so short a time that it cannot for a moment be conceded that the benefits they may have obtained will prove permanent.

The strength in this form of government lies in its adaptability to the affairs of small communities, its short ballot and its comparative simplicity in organization. As a rule the smaller cities and towns have been harassed with too much officialism. A condition growing out of the fact that when municipal codes are being prepared in the state legislature, they are usually framed by the representatives of the larger cities. These men have no realization of the simple conditions that prevail in these communities and proceed to burden them with a cumbersome organization, which might be suitable to their own localities, but are utterly out of proportion with simpler duties. This will account in a large measure for the universal welcome commission government has received from small municipalities. *Any change* towards simpler organization would have proved advantageous. The weakness of commission government will develop when it is endeavored to apply it to large cities. Lack of adequate and much needed checks will prove a menace and its ultimate undoing. Be this however, as it may, it is certainly a fact that there is large dissatisfaction with the municipal organization as it exists in general today. The strong trend is toward a shorter ballot and centralized responsibility. Along this line the following plan may be suggested. It is but a modification of the general code in use in Ohio and follows somewhat federal lines.

The first step toward real reform is in the lengthening of official terms of office from two years to four years. It will hardly need much argument to convince the people that experience in public office is a valuable asset. If a proper system of recall is adopted this extension can be allowed with reasonable safety. By a proper system of recall is meant not the loose system which is so prevalent, which permits any opposition to take a flyer at an official in the hope of superseding him, or the calling of an election so as to turn the government over to the chance favorite of the day, but a recall should be so drafted with proper safeguards as to operate as a positive public condemnation of the official recalled. If it fails to do this it is worse than useless. The city government might then be outlined as follows: First, a council of five elected at large whose duties are to be purely legislative. Second, a mayor who shall be in fact as well as in name, the chief executive of a city, appointing the heads of the various departments and responsible for their subordinates. Third, a city solicitor and fourth, an auditor. The last two officials serving as checks on behalf of the citizens upon the other officials acting under delegated powers only.

Checking officers directly elected by the people would not be dependent upon or mixed up in the affairs of the officials whose actions they are supposed to check. Anyone who is at all conversant with public work on its practical side will at once recognize the value of this provision. The moment an auditor, for example, is mixed up with or made a part of the department he is supposed to check, that moment his value as a checking officer is weakened, for he is in a measure but called upon to check his own work. It is interesting to note the makeshifts adopted by some of the commission cities for offsetting this inherent weakness. The city treasurer being merely the custodian of funds levied by and at the disposition of council should be appointed either by the council or the mayor or by the conjunction of both. His position although responsible, covers only routine work. Under this form of government there would be eight officials to elect. Divide them into two shifts of two years each and then you would have at one election the selection of a mayor and three councilmen and at a subsequent election two years later, the selection of a solicitor, auditor and two councilmen, or any other arrangement that might be deemed advisable. This would give a very short ballot for but four officials. The appointment of auxiliary boards, the initiative, referendum. recall and like features could also be provided for if desired, but as far as the administration of general city affairs is concerned, it should be centralized in the city council and the mayor. This form of government it is believed will yield all the benefits that can possibly be claimed for the commission form while at the same time eliminating its weak features. It should be borne in mind however, that this form is not suggested as an ultimate form of universal application. Whether it will fairly meet the involved conditions in very large cities is a matter of conjecture. It might be found necessary here to increase the size of council and also provide for district representation. These are problems that must be solved by those familiar with actual local conditions, and even then one must look to time for the demonstration of the wisdom of plans. One point must be strongly insisted upon throughout this entire controversy, and that is the seriousness of the problem. Conclusions should not be jumped at, but should always be preceded by pains-taking investigation and calm judgment.

THE THRALDOM OF MASSACHUSETTS CITIES

BY HARVEY N. SHEPARD[1]

Boston, Massachusetts

WHEN any one, who is familiar with the early history of Massachusetts, compares the legal position of its towns then with what it now is, he well may wonder if it is the same commonwealth. The contrast between their freedom before the Revolution and their present subjection is startling, and with very few parallels in history. Most of the towns are older than the state government; and their powers came not under any grant from it, but by virtue of the right of local self-government, which was brought over from England by our ancestors and which rests upon the magna charta. Town government was recognized by the state; it was not created by it.

But now a town in most respects, and city altogether is in a position of utter helplessness. As a creature of the legislature, a city has no other powers than those which are enumerated in the laws which create it. Doubt is resolved against it and the power is denied. Its legal standing is that of an infant or of an idiot or of a lunatic. It can do no act and can make no contract, not expressly authorized; and all acts beyond the powers expressly granted are void.

A town or a city cannot defend against encroachment its own boundaries or even its own existence. The legislature can change the boundary lines according to its own views of public expediency. Although the constitution provides that no city government shall be erected in any town without the consent of the inhabitants of the town, a town may be annexed to a city already established, for "the power to create, change and destroy municipal corporations is in the legislature. It may amend their charters, enlarge or diminish their powers, extend or limit their boundaries, consolidate two or more into one, and abolish them altogether, at its own discretion."

The celebrated Dartmouth College case, by its construction of the federal constitution, incorporated into American jurisprudence the principle, which has been attended with such important consequences, that privileges and franchises, granted by legislative act to a private corporation, when accepted, constitute a contract; and hence a law altering the charter of such a corporation is unconstitutional. But the charter of a municipal corporation is in no sense a contract between the state and the corporation, and the power of the legislature over it remains supreme.

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During the Indian and French wars, and also during the war of the Revolution, the towns of Massachusetts again and again raised and equipped soldiers and built and maintained forts, and nobody questioned their right and their duty to do so. But early in the last century a different opinion began to appear. In the war of 1812 with Great Britain the enemy were destroying property in places near to Fairhaven, and this town was in immediate danger. So the people came together at a regular meeting and voted unanimously $1200 for defense. But the court held the vote to be illegal; and that the town could not protect and defend its own inhabitants. So a citizen, who furnished cattle to British officers at the request of the selectmen of the town, in order to prevent the burning of the town, cannot recover any compensation therefor, since the protection of the town was no concern of its selectmen. Neither can a town raise money for the uniforms of a company enlisted from its inhabitants, and therefore a vote to raise five hundred dollars for that purpose is void.

In order to help the government to put down the rebellion the town of Scituate voted to pay to volunteer soldiers belonging to the town, who were mustered into the service of the United States, ten dollars a month during such service, but the soldiers never got the money, since not only was the vote of the town illegal, but also a statute, which confirmed all acts of towns in agreeing to pay bounties for soldiers furnished by them for the war, did not make this vote valid, because there was nothing to which this statute could apply, the vote itself being void.

The public property of a city, such as its streets, although built and paid for and kept in repair by it, does not belong to it, as the property of an individual belongs to him, or of a private corporation to it; but is subject to the authority of the legislature to transfer it and to confiscate it, against the will of the city and without any compensation therefor.

A city cannot require compensation for the use of its streets, nor in granting a location to a street railway company impose a condition regulating fares. It cannot prohibit the distribution of handbills and of other papers upon its sidewalks; or grant permits for parades and processions; or adopt rules for the regulation of itinerant musicians; or prescribe a sum which shall be paid to open its streets for laying pipes and wires; or collect reasonable compensation for the injury to its streets by excavations made therein. Boston tried to obtain authority from the legislature to follow the practice of European cities and make a charge for street privileges and tried in vain, until this year, when the legislature passed an act, that the charge for a permit to make excavations in any street or sidewalk shall not exceed fifty cents.

It required a special statute for the city of Worcester to permit the Worcester Bleach and Dye Works Company to build a bridge across one of the streets to connect buildings on opposite sides of the street; and another for the city of Haverhill to construct a footway from one part of the city across the Merrimac River to another part of the city and another for Boston to construct a street from one of its avenues across one of its parks to connect with another of its streets; and the state directed this to be done by the executive department without the concurrence of the council. The legislature this year directed a state commission to construct a street from a certain point in Boston to the boundary line between Boston and Dedham, and that all damages assessed together with interest and costs shall be paid by the city. The state has ordered the paving of cerain specified streets.

The legislature may take from a city all control of its streets and may provide for work upon them, at the expense of the city, but through other agents than those appointed by it. The legislature may authorize a street railway company or a gas company or an electric light company to occupy the streets in a city, even if owned in fee by it, without its consent and without payment to it. In this way a large proportion of the streets in the cities of Massachusetts are given over to private corporations; and the locations cannot be revoked without the consent of the state. The Boston Elevated Railway secured in this way its original location and its subsequent extensions.

The legislature gave to two steam railroads the right to construct a union station, and as incident thereto, ordered the city of Boston to close certain of its streets and to change other streets at its expense without compensation. It has directed the construction of tunnels and subways in Boston, and has authorized its commission to use the public ways, lands, embankments, and parks, of the city, without compensation; and in the name of the city to contract with the elevated railway, if the railway consents thereto, but the consent of the city is not asked, "for the sole and exclusive use of the subway for the company, for the running of its cars therein and for other purposes, for a term of twenty-five years."

Boston spent a large sum of money and tore down many buildings to lay out Scollay Square, to improve the means of transit in that vicinity; and, when the state transit commission proposed again to erect buildings in the square in connection with the subway, the aldermen requested the commission to secure a building on either side of the square and reconstruct it for a subway station, and the commission refused the request. The city, in order to preserve the old state house in a condition worthy of its importance as a historic building, declined to renew the leases of its tenants when they expired, and so loses every year a considerable revenue. This same transit commission, however, has taken possession of most of the street floor of this building and has leased it to the Boston Elevated Railway Company. Neither of these things would have been done if Boston could control its own streets and buildings. The situation in Boston is especially bad, as it has no control over any one of the big public service corporations within its limits, the transportation, gas and electric companies all having their authority from the state, so that one never knows when a street will be dug up and its expensive repairs destroyed. The present mayor is said to have characterized as a stupid arrangement the lack of uniformity in the placing of wires beneath the streets, electric light wires going down one day and telephone wires another, and to propose a municipal conduit for all the wires at a fair rental—an excellent idea, which the state already has refused to allow.

Most states recognize the city's rights in its streets and public places; and in several states street railways, telegraph, telephone and electric light lines, and gas, water and steam-heating plants cannot use the streets without the consent of the city. In New Jersey no rights in the streets may be granted unless a petition stating the details is filed and public notice given before the enactment of an ordinance. Such rights then may be granted for twenty years; and, if a longer franchise is desired, the matter must be submitted to a vote of the citizens.

To carry on the various branches of government buildings are necessary for its officials in performing their duties. But the city cannot erect any other than strictly official buildings. It cannot build a theatre or a social hall, or any other place of recreation, or put up a statue or a monument. But it may build a market house; and in deciding this question the court found it necessary to depart, at least a little, from the doctrine that cities are altogether creatures of the legislature, without any power except so far as it is expressly conferred upon them. For like reasons a city may erect a hall for political rallies, and may make expenditures, though not within the terms of the statutes, for reservoirs to supply fire engines; for a public clock, and for hay scales, burial grounds and wells.

It cannot use its school buildings for social centers, as is done now with such large gain in more than a hundred cities of other states and in nearly all the cities of Europe. The legislature last year, however, has given permission, not to the city government, but to the school committee to grant the temporary use of halls in school buildings for public or educational purposes. Take this statute of the present year as an example of our complex administration: "The park commissioners of the city of Boston are hereby authorized upon the request of the school-house commissioners of the city, with the approval of the school committee of the city, to permit the erection of a building for the High School of Commerce within the limits of the Back Bay Fens in the city of Boston."

The necessity to go to the legislature again and again for power to build naturally has led the legislature, in place of giving the city general authority sometimes to direct specifically who shall do the work, and sometimes to proceed itself to do the work. Many public buildings of Boston have been erected in this manner, in complete independence of its municipal administration. A recent act appoints in the city of Haverhill a commission, names its members, and directs them to erect upon a specific lot of land a high school building at a cost not to exceed $350,000.

A Massachusetts city cannot engage in any trading enterprises; and even the legislature cannot authorize it to buy coal and wood for sale to its inhabitants, no matter how necessary these may be to life itself. Moreover if a city gets permission to enter upon some enterprise, a water supply for instance, it has no assurance whatever that it will continue. Boston furnished itself with excellent water at a cost of several millions of dollars; but the state took over both the supply and the plant without asking the consent of the city.

A franchise to establish and operate ferries, water works, gas works, electric plants, or street railways, is a contract, if granted to an association of stockholders constituting a private corporation, and is protected by the constitution, but is not a contract, if granted to an association of individuals constituting a city, and is not protected by the constitution, or by anything else, and may be taken without compensation at the pleasure of the legislature. It is only a law which may be amended and repealed by the legislature as it sees fit, without regard to the wishes of the people affected by it.

As all government exists only for the good of the people, the determination of the powers a city should assume rests wholly on the ground of expediency, and its action should not be limited in any direction in which the good of the people would be attained. In an expanding civilization it is impossible for a city to stand still. New conditions give rise to new needs. What before has been left to private performance may require municipal control.

It is not my purpose in this paper to advocate or to oppose municipal ownership and operation of the public utilities, but rather that this is a question for each community to decide for itself and that it should be perfectly free so to do.

In the matter of its revenue and of the purposes for which it may be expended the position of a city is one of entire dependence upon the state. It cannot without express permission celebrate a historical event such as the Declaration of Independence or the anniversary of its founding. It cannot pay the members of a private company for services rendered as engineman, although the company turned out at fires and rendered the same services as the other engine companies in the town. It cannot open its schools to children of foreign residents; offer a reward for the apprehension of a person suspected of the murder of one of its inhabitants or the burning of one of its buildings; nor defray the expenses of a committee to attend a convention of American municipalities, where subjects pertaining to the administration of cities are to be discussed, because the "education of the mayor and aldermen upon matters relating to municipalities is not a public purpose." The town of Natick was unable without the express permission of the legislature to remove the obstruction in Charles River within the limits of the town, and the legislature allowed it to use only $1000 therefor. Neither could the town of Walpole spend $250 for a visiting nurse to its sick and poor; nor the city of Boston pay the widow of one of its employees $1000 on account of his death; nor Holyoke pay the widow of its collector of taxes "$1000, as part of the salary that would have been due to him had he continued to serve the city during the current year;" nor Boston pay the widow of one of its aldermen the salary, which he would have been entitled to had he lived to complete his term of service; nor Boston pay an annuity of $300 for ten years to the widow of an employee who was drowned while in its service.

In the year 1885 Massachusetts passed an act limiting the tax levy in Boston to $9 on every $1000 of the average value of the taxable property for the five preceding years; and in the same year another act limiting the borrowing capacity, except for water, to 2 per cent of the valuation. These acts were passed under great pressure, and with the expectation that there would be a large saving in the expenditures of the city. Mark, however, the result. The city council proceeded immediately to increase the expenditures so as to exhaust the whole of the possible levy, and ever since has followed a like course. The council naturally makes no distinction between the possible sum from taxes and the possible sum from loans, but considers them together as the amount it is given for city needs, and straightway proceeds to spend it. This should have been expected. If men are told they may spend so much, they proceed to spend the whole of the permitted sum. The appropriations, therefore, become larger rather than less.

Money borrowed within the debt limit usually has gone to purposes formerly paid for from the tax levy, and all large improvements, and not a few of ordinary character, have been met by special loans authorized by the legislature outside of the debt limit. The council has learned that if needs arise, the legislature will authorize additional loans. Its members feel little responsibility, as the legislature has assumed it for them. For instance, the legislature this year authorized the city to spend $100,000 outside the debt limit for a playground. In the ten years preceding the acts of 1885 there was a decrease in the net debt of the city. In the ten years succeeding these acts there was an increase of 90 per cent. In the period from 1890 to 1910 the net indebtedness increased over 257 per cent and in the same period the assessed valuation of property increased only 69 per cent. November 30, 1910, the net indebtedness of the city stood at the enormous total of $116,259,993.37.

As a remedy for this serious condition, the legislature has not changed the act of 1885, nor has it ceased to order Boston to spend money and to contract debts, and, above all, it has not permitted Boston to seek and apply a remedy for itself, but it has authorized the governor to appoint another state commission "to investigate appropriations, loans, expenditures, accounts, and methods of administration affecting the city of Boston or any department thereof," and to report thereon in January of each year. This is an illustration of the tendency in Massachusetts to special legislation. In place of providing by general act for some inspection or control by the commonwealth of the financial affairs of all its cities, as is done in Great Britain under the auspices of the local government board, by this act the financial affairs of Boston alone are subject to the inspection of a state board.

The limitation of the tax levy has been extended to all cities, with the result that they flock to the state house year after year and beg permission of the state to exceed it, so that the legislature, and not the city government, has become the final judge of the expediency or necessity of most municipal enterprises. Let me cite a very few of many instances:

> The city of Chicopee is hereby exempted, until the first day of January in the year nineteen hundred and fifteen, from the operation of limiting the rate of taxation in cities. The city of New Bedford, for the purpose of constructing a new school building may incur indebtedness beyond the limit fixed by law to an amount not exceeding one hundred and forty thousand dollars. For the purpose of erecting a building for school purposes the city of Lynn may incur indebtedness in excess of the debt limit fixed by law to the amount of one hundred thousand dollars. The city of Fall River may incur indebtedness outside of the debt limit for public park uses, to an amount not exceeding fifty thousand dollars.

In making the appointment of city officials subject to a certificate of the civil service commissioners of the commonwealth, Boston again has made an exception, and its officials alone are subject to such control. Another illustration of this besetting evil is found in a statute directing that the names of the candidates for aldermen, not in all the cities, but but only in Cambridge, "shall be printed in the order in which they are drawn by the city clerk, whose duty it shall be to make such drawings." The last legislature passed an act empowering a man to maintain a suit against New Bedford, then pending in the superior court "as fully and with the same effect as if all provisions of law relating to the ordering of materials and labor for the city had been complied with."

A city or town cannot control most of its officers, and cannot remove them for misconduct, because the state calls them its officers and not of the city or town, although elected and paid by it. Some years ago when cattle were kept quite generally in the country towns of Massachusetts it was the custom to elect in the town meeting an officer called the field driver, whose duty it was to impound any cattle found wandering upon the highways; and the state called even this petty officer its agent, and it was held that the town has no control over him in respect to his observance or neglect of his duty. In another town at its annual meeting the inhabitants, after a long debate upon the question whether they would establish a regular fire department or would elect fire wardens as a substitute, finally chose to do the latter; nevertheless the selectmen established a fire department, their power to do so being independent of the town. Certain towns own rights of fishing and fowling which have come down to them from colonial days, and in one of these towns the inhabitants at their annual meeting voted what permits the selectmen should grant during the ensuing year and upon what terms. The selectmen refused to be directed, restrained, or controlled by the town. Policemen, of course, are not the servants of a city, their appointment by it being merely a "convenient mode of exercising a function of government." It logically follows that the state may take over the police of any city, as it has done in Boston and two other cities, where the police have been put under commissioners appointed by the governor, all expenses, however, being paid by the city upon their requisition. The last legislature has gone further than ever before, and has passed an act, again applicable only to Boston, ordering its school committee to wholly appropriate a fixed percentage for the purpose of increasing the present salaries of the teachers in the public schools of the city. It also has ordered the park commissioners of the city of Worcester to perform the duties of the city relative to the management of a certain tract of land in the city; and has abolished the sewer commissioners, the water board, and the surveyor of highways in the town of Peabody and has established in place thereof a commission of public works; and in Boston has established a board of appeal and has restricted the mayor in his appointments to candidates nominated by certain designated societies and associations.

The inhabitants of the town of Stratton, at the annual meeting in March, 1906, appointed a committee to investigate the doings of its board of health. This committee made a report, with charges against the board, which report was accepted and adopted, and another committee was appointed to hear evidence upon the charges against the board, and to report their findings of fact and their recommendations at an adjourned town meeting. The committee made a report finding the charges proved and recommending the removal of the board for maladministration and misfeasance in office. The report was accepted and adopted, but the members of the board held on to the office, and the court said the town could not remove them.

There are no less than forty separate departments in the city of Boston, some elected by the council, some by the people, some appointed by the mayor and some appointed by the governor. Another distinct department has been established within a few months to have the sole care, custody, management and control of one school. They might be grouped or consolidated with great gain and economy, but as to many of them the state has expressly forbidden this to be done. The council of Chicago, in comparison, may create departments and at any time abolish or amend them. It required a special act for the city of Springfield to establish for that city a building department; and another for the city of Newton, when the head of any department dies, to appoint the head of another department, or some other person, to perform temporarily the duties of the office.

Many departments have become independent, either through the direct appointments of their heads by the governor of the state or through the legislature making them distinct corporations, so that they have a being separate from that of the municipal corporation itself and beyond its power to change. Some of them spend money without check and without regard to the appropriations made by the city council. The trustees of the public library of Boston, formerly chosen by the city council, recently appointed by the mayor, asked the legislature to make them a distinct corporation. This was done. And when it was a question of building a new library these trustees, as a distinct corporation, not asking the city council, but obtaining authority from the legislature so to do, made their own contracts and put up their own building.

An apt illustration of the disintegration of our city governments is found in the reported statement of the park commissioners of Boston, that, if the council should make any attempt to disturb them, they would petition the legislature to take away the control of their department from the council. We see frequently the representatives of one department appear before a committee of the legislature advocating something which is opposed by the representatives of some other department, or by the officers of the city, and it has happened more than once that the mayor himself has met with opposition before legislative committees from officials supposed to be under his jurisdiction. It also has happened that when the mayor and the council do not agree both appeal to the legislature. This was the case when the last charter was imposed upon the city. Recently the council failed to adopt the recommendation of the mayor to purchase two lots of land for the extension of a street, and thereupon he declared that he would petition the legislature next year to have a state commission undertake it. Much is said about a city being a business corporation. It is this, and much more. But even as a business corporation, no one would expect success from a private corporation unless the directors could control the expenditures. If one or more departments of any corporation could spend what they pleased without regard to the wish of the directors, we should expect that corporation to reach insolvency; and yet that is exactly the situation of Boston.

It must be conceded that the administration of our many state commissions is efficient and in itself satisfactory. The appointments generally have been admirable; and the public work has been done with intelligence, dispatch and economy. This paper is not a criticism of individuals, but of a vicious system, the effect of which upon the people is lamentable. They act less and less vigorously in municipal life. Having been so long under the control of the state they are more accustomed when they desire to make a change in policy, to have recourse to the legislature rather than to their own local government.

It is of little moment, comparatively, whether the work committed to the charge of these commissioners is well or ill done, since it is far more important that the people should determine their own affairs than that they should be furnished by an outside authority with a perfect administration. The highest praise given to our institutions by foreign writers has been because of our provisions for popular control; and now to depart from these is voluntarily to surrender our most precious heritage.

What has happened recently in Lawrence shows the deplorable effect of this vicious system. The city is old and rich; it has a population of 86,000, and yet by the word of its most prominent citizens, it is financially and morally bankrupt; and so they ask the state to take over its charter and administer its affairs. One of the largest cities of the state, for more than sixty years managing its own affairs, a long-established seat of industry, bearing one of New England's proudest names, confesses its inability to govern itself. The situation is not the result of accident, and it touches the credit of the commonwealth.

The city in Massachusetts is not a self-governing community, free to apply its own remedies to its own ills and to learn by experience how to work out an administration adapted to its local needs; and the absolute dominion of the legislature has made the voter helpless and hopeless and has stifled local patriotism. Such an abuse of power would be monstrous to every citizen of an European city. It would be difficult for him to grasp even the idea of its possibility. The citizens of Birmingham govern Birmingham; the legislature of Massachusetts governs Boston.

Twenty-two states now protect their cities by constitutional provisions against such abuses of power, and many of them give the right to each city to frame its own charter and to change it at pleasure.

The relation thus established between the community and its organic law has exercised great influence upon the civic life of the people. The fact that the responsibility for a charter rests not with the legislature, but with the people of the city, has aroused a civic spirit which is felt in every department of the government; and there is developed a more definite as well as a higher standard of city life. No community of free men can secure from sources outside of itself a government better than it can evolve from within. Temporary relief may be had from outside, but the only kind of government with which we ought to be satisfied must be secured by internal growth. No charter should be imposed upon a city. It should be in the nature of a general act, which the people of any city, or of any town qualified to become a city, may adopt if they see fit, and which they may change at their own will and pleasure, determining for themselves the details of their organization, subject to the general laws of the state. The gate should be open to reform whenever the people wish it. The legislature should not make the change, but the city council by ordinance. The reason given for action by the legislature rather than by the council, that any future municipal government would find it difficult to undo the work, is the very best reason why we should not go to the legislature. Why should we tie our hands? Are we afraid of freedom?

If no outside authority intervenes and if a city's government be dependent solely upon its own citizens, they will find a way to one adapted to the local needs. Experience is the only effective teacher. We must learn by our own errors, just as we learned when children to dread fire, when we put a finger into the flame. There is no other remedy for bad government than the ancient remedy—self-government. The city itself must set its political house in order, and keep it in order. When the citizens of Chicago sought a remedy for bad government they made over their council, because by the state constitution Chicago could not appeal to the legislature for a change. But in Massachusetts the legislature is so in the habit of revising or appealing this or that statute under which cities are conducted that their government at any time is simply one of a series of legislative experiments. In no community can affairs be managed successfully when the legislature stands ready to remodel the charter whenever a minority in the city can command the support of a majority in the state. Anything which will alter this relation, so as to free cities from special legislation, not only will improve the cities but also the legislature, which is burdened by numberless local questions.

The sweeping subjection of Massachusetts cities to legislative authority arises from the failure to distinguish between the two spheres of municipal activity. So far as the city is an agent of the state to carry out state policy, in respect to state interests, supervision by state authority is right; but, so far as the city is a local coöperative community, it should decide for itself. Home rule excludes the state from control over those affairs which affect the city apart from the whole body of the people; but it does not mean that the city shall do as it will with reference to affairs of state concern. It does not mean that within municipal limits the police power of the state has been abrogated, or that in public education the state is debarred from control; but the control should be by the way of supervision and not by doing the things itself. As an example of the different methods of control in Great Britain and with us, take the police. The state, of course, has a vital interest in the maintenance of an efficient police. When the local authorities fail in this respect our method is for the state to administer the local police through officials responsible to it; that is, to do the work itself, but at the cost of the local community. On the other hand, in Great Britain, where the police are managed by a committee chosen by the city council from among its own members, should it be reported to the home office by inspectors that the police of any city fall short of efficiency, the home office, which under ordinary conditions defrays out of the national treasury one-half the sum required to pay and clothe the police, would withhold its grant. We have here a system of control which makes for efficiency without intermeddling with the rights and the duties of the local authorities.

It now is agreed generally, outside of Massachusetts, that the powers of the city, instead of being specified, should be conferred by a general grant to exercise all powers not inconsistent with state laws. In place of its present humiliating position, that a city can do only those few things for which distinct authority has been given, it should be clothed with complete authority to do everything which is not distinctly forbidden. Then and then only may we expect that full civic life which is characteristic of the cities of Europe, and then and then only may we expect that civic interest which is the only assurance of good government. It would be folly to set forth in detail the things a man may do. The practical method is for the law to enumerate the things a man shall not do. The same rule holds good in regard to local government. Any functions not specifically forbidden by law should be the right of a city. Like other corporations it derives its existence and its power to act from the state; and this is the only necessary connection between a city and the state. It needs no further assistance.

Two things are necessary if city government is to revive in Massachusetts: The city must be left absolutely alone so long as it does not offend against state laws applicable to all, and the city must be given the power to do the things which a modern city should do for the welfare of its people. The present legal presumption that it has no power, not plainly to be found in a legislative grant, should be reversed, and the city presumed to possess every power not clearly denied to it under the constitution of the state.

A city in Germany is free to do anything it likes which is not contrary to law. Home rule has full swing, with marked advantages in awakening local patriotism and securing men of high character and ability to manage city affairs. It may perform and render every kind of public service, subject only to the laws applicable to all. It controls all franchises within its own limits. Contrast this ample grant with the helpless condition of a Massachusetts city which may not control even the paving of its own streets. Were our cities so treated, unable to resort to outside assistance, and secure against ourside interference, compelled to work out their own welfare, the very necessity of the case would develop an enlightened public opinion and give us good government.

While satisfactory and progressive city government is impossible under the present conditions in Massachusetts, the outlook is not without hope. The demand for greater municipal freedom steadily grows, notwithstanding such relapses as the imposition upon Boston, without a vote of its people, and against the protest of its council, of the city charter. Men see now that the good they expected from it cannot be realized so long as it remains uncertain whether the people wish it.

The general interest in the expendiency, if not the right of home rule, has continued to live, and has appealed strongly to most of our recent governors.

One of the two important political parties of the commonwealth has now declared definitely for home rule, and its candidate for governor has made this a prominent feature of his campaign.

CIVIC SURVEYS

BY THOMAS H. MAWSON, HON. A.R.I.B.A.[1]

London, England

I WAS once asked "What is the most useful tool of the town planner?" and my questioner was somewhat surprised when I replied that I considered, for the kind of site we were dealing with, a bicycle was the most useful asset he could command. What I had in my mind in making this half jocular answer to my friend's serious question was that, the chief point to be gained in a preliminary view of the site, was a thorough sense of locality and the correct relationship of its several parts, and some rapid means of getting from one part to the other greatly aids in this by allowing us to see each portion in its relationship to the other portions from every point of view while the subject is fresh in our minds. This truth struck me very forcibly when working on a site in the North of England. I knew before visiting it that it was comparatively flat and devoid of trees so decided to do it on foot. When I had been there some days and had got the topography fairly well fixed in my mind, I had occasion to drive along a road passing through the estate for nearly its whole length and I was surprised what a difference the slight extra elevation made to my outlook and how easier it was to grasp the relationship of the parts of the estate, and especially its tortuous lanes, as we moved rapidly along with a good horse. I would therefore say, use whatever means of rapid conveyance is available or the nature of the ground makes possible, the automobile on a smooth road, the bicycle across agricultural land, or a strong wiry pony over rougher ground still.

Of course, in this work, one would make first for the highest points from which to obtain a panoramic view of the surrounding country and there, unfolding the plan, note the positions on it of all the features to be seen and particularly roads, rivers, rights of way, villages or the best points at which to cross railways, rivers, canals, or other obstacles and also swamps or rocky ground and anything else which occurs to us is likely to influence our design. We shall do well to make on our plan the exact position of any tall chimney, church spire or very prominent tree which will form a landmark to help our sense of locality as we move from point to point of the estate.

Before we have been at this work very long, ideas for the direction and route of the principal traffic arteries and sites of the various classes of buildings will suggest themselves to the mind and we can do nothing better than to walk over the various routes and sites which occur to us to be obvious, not because there can possibly be any finality in these first rough guesses at a scheme for laying out the ground, but because it will give our itinerary a purpose and we shall notice more thoroughly and with less conscious effort every feature which suggests an easy means of development or the reverse. We shall, of course, also traverse every existing road and follow all water courses and, in a partly developed district, we shall try the effect of continuing the lines of existing streets and studying to connect the new with the old. In my work in England, I have always made as much use as I could of the street car services. For instance in preparing my scheme for the improvement of Bolton, I found that by riding out of the town in all directions into the country on the top of a street car, I obtained from this excellent vantage point, much valuable information.

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This preliminary work over and, as soon as we feel that we have a thorough knowledge of the site and all its surroundings, the next step is to open a temporary office in the town nearest the site and there interview every one who is interested in the proposed scheme or who, through having work on the site, or watched the development of surrounding places, is able to give information which may assist us in realizing all that is valuable in the local point of view. There can be rarely anyone so dull or so devoid of imagination that it is total waste of time to listen to all he has to say of what he knows of the place and, when confronted with what is obviously a glaring impossible point of view, we should try to trace the mental processes by which it has been arrived at when we may be rewarded by obtaining material which, by more logical methods of deduction, will produce a result of the greatest value.

William Pitt, a hundred and fifty years ago used to argue politics with a man of no special capabilities,whose opinion on such subjects was of no more value than that of any "man-in-the-street." When asked the reason he replied that he used the man as a "Foolometer," a term he coined to express the idea that he used the man to find out the point of view of the unintelligent individual on matters of state. We must do the same. We must act in the spirit of the old fashioned saying which tells us to—"Listen to all the advice we can obtain and act on as much of it as coincides with our own inclination." By this means we shall gather together, not only a vast accumulation of material about the locality, none of which can be entirely without its bearing upon what we propose to do, but also we shall be enabled to grasp that individual spirit which obtains in every district and which it is so important our scheme should foster and express.

This is most important for, as its location or the prevailing trade or manufacture may influence the town's character or individuality, so ought thees to be expressed in the design. Educational and ecclesiastical towns such as Oxford or Canterbury will necessarily be planned on altogether different lines from shipping towns such as Liverpool or Cardiff. Each should wear an altogether different external appearance in order to be expressive of its own civic character or individuality. This is the first quality looked for by the civic architect who adequately and reverently approaches the problem of city planning. As Mr. Charles Mulford Robinson says, it is that tangible something which the city says, which is the secret of its own particular charm among cities. A man may be most learned in engineering, in landscape gardening, in architecture, but unless he is so sympathetic to the spirit of cities that he can catch the individual expression of each, he must fail in the making of city plans. It needs a nature extremely fine in its susceptibilities to catch the differing civic spirit of, say, London or Edinburgh, Montreal or Toronto, that something which it is perhaps impossible adequately to convey by words yet can be expressed and augmented by art.

This process, first getting to know all that there is to know about the topography of the site and its surroundings, and then interviewing everyone who has any interest in the proposed scheme should provide the landscape architect with a thorough knowledge, not only of his subject, but, what is still more important, of its history, and so of the requirements to be met and the possibilities for future development.

It will now be time for him to call to his aid the specialists, the antiquarian, the sociologist, the hygienist, the sanitary engineer, the educationalist, the commercial expert and any others whom the particular circumstances would suggest as essential to a result which will recognize all the requirements of all concerned. Accompanying them would be a carefully drawn up circular of instructions giving tersely and succinctly a review of the nature of the scheme proposed, the instructions received by the landscape architect from the promoters which may have a bearing on their reports and the results so far arrived at by the preliminary itinerary of the ground.

When these reports are received the real work of city planning will commence. First will come the important task of so collating and presenting the information gathered together by the various experts as to make it instantly accessible. This will generally be done by taking one or more copies of the large scale plan and showing on it, by a differently colored ink or pigment, the requirements of each class. For instance, if, in the case of an old town, we find on the plan so treated that the antiquarian has marked an architectural feature as of sufficient national interest as to make its retention an absolute necessity, and around it, a different color or a key plan, shows that the hygienist has condemned a considerable area as too low lying for healthy dwellings, we have at once a determinant factor suggesting as imperative that this area shall be cleared of existing slums and dedicated as an open space to the use of the public, the ancient buildings providing the dominant interest in their lay-out to which all other features will be subordinated. Or suppose that the sanitary engineer has shown that a portion of the site is too high to be reached by the available water supply without resource to expensive pumping operations while the artist has scheduled it as a place of special beauty from which unique views are obtainable, this cumulative evidence in favor of its preservation will immediately become apparent when we indicate the recommendations of each by separate colors on one sheet as suggested. These are of course simple cases which would hardly call for elaborate methods but they indicate the principle which, if adopted, will enable us to deal far more thoroughly with these recommendations, and especially to detect conflicting interests and solve the problems they represent, than would otherwise be possible.

Infinite tact will be needed in this work. It is the bane of the specialist everywhere that he grows in time to a grossly exaggerated sense of the importance of his own particular branch to the exclusion of interest in any other. Charles Darwin, the great popularizer of the revolutionary theory of creation and progress, fully realized this even in his own case, for, in his intensely interesting book, *The Voyage of the Beagle,* he bemoans that, the more he studied the scientific anatomy of nature, the less he saw of nature's beauty until, towards the end of his life, it became almost a closed book to him.

The greater difficulty, however, will be with the amateur with the fixed idea and filled with a boundless enthusiasm for it and possessed of sufficient personal magnetism to obtain support for it. Such persons, from their very enthusiasm are generally promoted to a place on the board of promoters of a town-planning scheme, and the more plausible their hobby, the greater the danger of their wrecking, or, at least, crippling the scheme. As an instance of this, I may mention a scheme for a garden suburb in England where one of the most prominent members of the committee insisted that every other consideration of whatever kind should be sacrificed in order that each house should be placed at the northeast corner of its plot so that it might have a southwest aspect. In vain was it pointed out that every house has four aspects, that such a plan would prevent all privacy in half the gardens, that the public service pipes would be lengthened by 25 per cent, that all massing and grouping of the architectural details would be rendered impossible and the scheme as a whole be ruined. Such instances could be multiplied almost indefinitely but there is one case which crops up perennially on every piece of work with unfailing regularity. This is the person who would sacrifice everything and permanently injure the scheme, to avoid the removal of even the most decrepit trees. I grant, most heartily, that every healthy tree is an inestimable asset to the scheme, and should be preserved and made a feature of the layout if this is possible, but to alter injuriously the whole line of a main road which, once planned, is more or less fixed for all time, in order to save a tree which can be replaced in fifty years, is a grave mistake. I could point to an English town-planning scheme which has been entirely spoiled by this very thing.

The preparation of the plan, collating and comparing the requirements of the various experts called in to advise on points outside the province of the landscape architect having been completed, the initiatory work incidental to the preparation of the scheme itself may be said to be over and the main business ready for consideration. The principles that will guide the landscape architect in his street planning, the proportioning and adorning of his boulevards, the design of his parks and gardens, and the merging of town and country will be dealt with in subsequent lectures, as they form themes of far too great a magnitude to be dismissed or even dealt with at all adequately in the remaining time at our disposal. Instead I would try and aid the tyro in this work by showing him some of the main principles which must receive recognition in the work of laying down the broad lines of his scheme.

My own method, after completing the street planning, would be to prepare a number of tracings or drawings on transparent paper which may be laid over the main plan and in which only one subject is dealt with. By this means, every part of the complex business of planning a town will be represented without crowding so much detail onto one sheet as to cause confusion. Thus on one tracing would be shown the different character of the various neighborhoods, whether residential, manufacturing, business, and so on, while another would show the varying densities of population, that is, the number of houses to the acre, to be allowed in various districts. These two would be closely related as would those showing the most economical drainage scheme possible on the site, the water service, the gas, electric, and sometimes the hydraulic power services. Other sheets would deal individually with various traffic problems; one would show, for instance, the routes which the fire engine would take to reach any part of the radius it serves, and so show whether the fire station were central in more than name; another would indicate all the playgrounds and show the traffic routes which small children would necessarily have to cross to reach each one from the districts it serves or whether they could be got at without danger to the little ones; another would show the traffic scheme in its relation to the principal railway stations and markets; another the same problem in its relation to the main routes out into the country; another the street car service, an extra thick line showing where two independent services use the same lines for a portion of their route, as this has a direct bearing on traffic problems; another would show the distribution of the town's open spaces and, by a systematic color scheme, the purposes to which they are to be put and this, again, would need careful collation with the sheet we have already mentioned showing the varying classes of the different districts, and also that showing the allowable maximum of population. Besides these, which would cover the whole of the town, there would be others devoted to the problems incidental to a part of the scheme. Thus one would show the railway and canal facilities to be provided in the manufacturing district, while another, dealing with the same area, would show its relation to the part allotted to the homes of the workers and how they would reach their work.

When these, and all the other problems of city-planning, have been dealt with in this way, and so disposed of by means which are, at the same time, both concise and thorough, certain parts will need more detailed treatment than can be given them on the main plan drawn, as we have suggested, to about the scale of twenty-four inches to the mile. Plans of these will have to be made to a larger scale and the additional details filled in. Thus, each of the public parks and ornamental squares will need such treatment as will also boulevards and other open spaces and, in particular, the town squares in order to show clearly the sites for the principal buildings and their relation to the vistas down the streets approaching it. Then, of course, each railway station and its approaches will require detailed consideration and monopolize a separate sheet, as will every market or other place which will have its own traffic or other problems.

Far better would it be to aim at making the main town-plan intelligible to the average man in the street who has had no architectural training and who consequently cannot understand or read a plan. In England or Canada, our most important task in arranging the presentment of our scheme is to gain the interest and approbation of the public. If it seems to them visionary or a needless waste of public money we shall never get the average citizen to allow it to proceed. We have, to begin with, the unit, the plain citizen, John Smith. It may be the fault of our democratic constitution that John Smith rules the roost in town-planning. In Germany they arrange things on imperial lines and the town-planning officials are above the reach of the voters. Both systems have their advantages and their disadvantages. The late Sir W. S. Gilbert, when writing his plays always had before his mind's eye a stolid individual to whom the music and the jest must be understandable, and we, in presenting our town planning schemes must do the same. I have seen more than one scheme in Europe prepared by good and capable men and which if not showing signs of genius in the promoters, were yet good and worthy of the occasion, fall flat from just this very cause. The very dearth of town-planning schemes in Britain may be traced to this lack of imagination. This multitude of undistinguished men like our friend John Smith are, as units, obscure, and draw little notice in their narrow spheres of action, yet, in their corporate capacity, they are a grand force which may wreck governments. Most likely as somebody has pointed out, John Smith must have a stake in the city, before you can interest him very deeply in the more complicated problems concerning it, but, that he is a power to be reckoned with, when it comes to the question as to whether a town-plan shall be adopted, no one who has had any experience in these matters will deny for a moment.

Instead, therefore, of giving him unnecessary detail to quarrel about, and which he will think he understands when he does not, the mind of John Smith must be illuminated by a clear and vivid representation of some of the main and indispensable features of the scheme, so placed before him as to awaken his enthusiasm for that which is good in it, and will not only arouse civic aspirations in him, but will appeal strongly to his democratic perceptions and practical philanthropy. In short, John Smith is a good chap, and, if he can be made to see the good in a scheme and be impressed with its practical and financial advantages, he will back it up for all it is worth. It is only and solely from first to last, because Mr. Ebenezer Howard, the author of *Garden Cities of Tomorrow*, possessed at the same time the imaginative qualities of the artist, and the sound practical knowledge of the world, which enabled him to make his theories understandable to the lay mind, that the great experiment at Letchworth in England ever came about.

We therefore see that, when his more immediate task is completed, the town-planner must also be in a position to take up this fresh task and, as Lord Houghton puts it, "To try and teach the souls you reach to feel and understand." This is a great task, but one which may be very much lightened by the hearty coöperation of an enthusiastic town-planning commission who, knowing the neighborhood and the trend of local opinion, may by their help and advice, and especially by the way in which they assist in placing the plans before the electorate, overcome mountains.

To do him credit, John Smith is quite ready to admit his ignorance of the artistic side of the work, but he feels that he has practical endowments which have enabled him to carve himself a niche in the universe and that he is capable of adjudicating on this side of the scheme. "I know I am an ass," said the gentleman in the play, "but I am not a *silly* ass," and this somewhat illustrated his attitude to town-planning schemes. We must therefore, in all we do, endeavor to show the man in the street the essential connection between the artistic and the practical, how they interlock at every point and how the attempt to divorce the ideal from the practical cannot but end in a machine-made lifeless standardization which, though it may succeed in rearing the grand external, can never satisfy human aspirations or elevate the public taste. We must, as I have put it elsewhere, "insist on the practicability of idealism."

There is one point in connection with the administration of such a scheme which I desire to mention not because it is a part of our present subject, though it arises out of it, but because it is of too great importance to be neglected. The subject I mean is the answer to the question, "How far should the individual plot-holder on the area included in a town-planning scheme be controlled in the development of his own holding and especially how far should his architect be restricted in the preparation of his designs for proposed buildings on the plot?"

I think that we shall all agree that the fewer vexatious restrictions imposed the better, but, nevertheless, it is evident that, although the broad lines of the scheme are entirely in the hands of the town-planning commission and their expert adviser, what will mar or make the scheme will, ultimately, be the suitability of the details chosen and the way in which the small finishings are managed. To illustrate what I mean, I need only remind you to what an extent such little things affect the ultimate result in such matters as dress, or the furnishings of our homes.

It is evident, therefore, that, whatever drawbacks there may be to the process, some sort of restraint must be exercised to prevent a few tasteless or ignorant individuals from ruining the whole of the aesthetic effect or creating a nuisance.

Local conditions and characteristics will enter so deeply into the solution of this problem that no town-planner would act or set up a code of conditions without going into the questions involved most thoroughly with his advisory committee, but there are a few broad lines which are applicable to all cases.

The restrictions may take two forms. In the first place, as already mentioned, various sites may be dedicated to special purposes. Thus, on the leeward side of the town considered as such in relation to the prevailing winds, a large area may be set apart for factories while, in another part, private residences only may be allowed with special exemptions for lodges for servants, and so on. In the second place, we may place restrictive clauses in the agreement of sale of the plot on a privately promoted scheme or frame by-laws for submission to and for the sanction of the proper authorities in the case of a public scheme. If such restrictions are wisely drawn up they should be welcomed by the property owners, for not only will they prevent him from doing acts detrimental to the scheme but they will prevent his neighbor from injuring his own plot or causing its depreciation by spoiling the amenities of the neighborhood.

Obvious subjects for such by-laws or restrictive clauses are the prevention of the establishment of trades in a good district which give off a disagreeable smell, the prevention of very high buildings which shut out the daylight and dwarf and overshadow other buildings near them, the provision of a proper building line up to which the main frontage of the buildings must come, the obligation to plant or maintain trees along the boundary between the plot and the public road, regulations as to a levy on all the houses round an open space laid out as a common garden to provide for its upkeep and such like arrangements which have been tried for many years in England with complete success so far as they have gone, only unfortunately most of us are persuaded that such things have not been done as much as they might have been.

On several English schemes lately there has been an attempt made to go much further than before in regard to the regulation of the designs of buildings to be erected. Most of the conditions relating to this matter enact that the designs for all buildings about to be erected shall be submitted to the town-planning commission in order that their town-planning expert may report to them as to its suitability for the site on which it is proposed to erect it. In case his decision is adverse to the design in any way, the expert is to state his reasons and how, in his opinion, it may be altered so as to harmonize with its surroundings and the prospective builder is bound to come to an agreement with him as to what shall be done before the commission will give their consent to its commencement. There are very obvious difficulties in such a course as this and, as it is on its trial in England it has not been tried long enough or often enough for us to be able to say how it will work or even which is the best and most satisfactory procedure. One can only say that in some cases it seems to be working very well, while in others it is producing what looks dangerously like a complete deadlock. This is no doubt due, to some extent, to the personality of the advisory expert and his committee and also as to how the matter has been put before prospective builders. Tact, in such a case, can work wonders as too can the lack of it in another sense.

CONSERVATIVE ASPECTS OF THE RECALL

By H. S. Gilbertson[1]

New York City

NINE years have elapsed since the principle of continuous control over their elected servants was enunicated by the people of Los Angeles. The originators of the recall put their measure forward in a gingerly fashion. They gave it an innocent place among a number of other charter amendments to be voted upon by the people and directed public attention to the other matters. In much the same automatic way that referendary measures have been known to go into law, the recall was adopted.

These political leaders knew they were putting forth something unconventional but it may be questioned whether they considered that they were fathering anything the least bit revolutionary. They had no notion, I believe, that there is anything supremely "representative" in the system whereby the people choose their servants at fixed intervals and then bid farewell to their sovereignty till the lapse of a period of years. Neither did they have any notion of substituting "pure democracy" for representative government. More probably they had no attenuated theories of any kind. They were confronted with an aggravating set of conditions in very human shape. Representative government in California till very recently was a fiction and a delusion and no amount of theorizing could make anything else out of it. Public officials calmly defied the most intense public opinion, and thrived in so doing. It was to reach these unrepresentative servants that the recall was invented—not the most consistent, logical means, perhaps, but one having a peculiar point under the conditions, when government otherwise was so far away from the average citizen.

From Los Angeles the idea extended gradually up the Pacific coast. It found favor with a group of public-minded citizens in Seattle who were seeking leverage against a certain ward councilman more offensive than ordinary, and it was inserted in the city charter. Mr. U'Ren's group in Oregon took it up as a logical supplement to their own system which embodied the identical scheme as applied to measures instead of men. It soon took root also in the middle west where the Galveston plan of government was gaining recognition, for it seemed to the framers of the commission-government laws to be a valuable counterbalance to the great concentration of power in the hands of a few men which is an essential feature of that plan. It seemed to them only consistent and proper to give the people an opportunity to revise their judgments and correct their mistakes in the election of public officials. Since 1909 the recall has become closely identified with the commission government movement, though probably it is in no appreciable degree responsible for its success. Suffice it to say, however, that out of a total of 185 cities under this plan, only a few are without the recall feature. But the recall is also applicable to all elected officials in California, Oregon and Arizona, and to officers in most of the Washington cities. So that now, under a variety of minor variations in no less than 250 municipalities, any elective official is subject to removal by popular vote.

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[1] Assistant Secretary of the Short Ballot Organization.

To the discriminating good sense and judicial-mindedness of the American voter and to his general desire for bestowing a "square deal" the recall is a frank tribute; it was conceived in a spirit of optimism as to his ability to take an intelligent part in recurring elections and to do justice to his servants while they are in office.

Thus is another item added to the responsibilities of citizenship, and I propose herewith to inquire how the electors appear to be keeping the faith. It is true that sufficient evidence on the practice of the recall has not yet been accumulated to afford dogmatic conclusions of any sort, but the rather meager facts which are available in this matter are suggestive of some of the characteristics of the American citizen which we may expect to see in operation when he possesses larger powers of direct government than he enjoys at present.

At the outset, it will be well to recollect that the recalling of officers is something different from hunting big game. There are certain formalities to be observed before one can do any shooting. Nor will it do to compare a recall campaign to the Newark, Ohio, mob, or a Coatesville lynching party. The framers of the recall were careful to guard against just such outbursts of passion. They provided that a respectable minority, usually 20 or 25 per cent of those voting for the officer at the last preceding election, should bring an indictment before ever the title to his position was called into question. The signatures to recall petition are certified and become a matter of public record.

And, in practice, the petition has shown itself to be no vain thing. I am mindful of the remark which is credited to a certain astute politician that he could get signatures to a petition to hang all red-haired men. It is one thing to start such a petition; it is quite another to get the names of one-fourth or one-fifth of the active voters subscribed to an absurd proposal. Not long ago a frantic effort was made in Tacoma to secure signatures at five cents per name on a petition to recall the mayor. Barkers stationed on the street corners, inviting, cajoling, begging for names. But this is a significant thing: they did not get them in sufficient numbers to bring the recall to a vote. Again, an attempt was recently made by certain politicians to reach the mayor of Colorado Springs. Petitions were started in every election district of the city, but in less than three days their efforts had proved hopeless. During last winter the liquor sellers in Marshalltown, Iowa, tried the same tactics; seeking to reopen the license question which had been tightly sealed by a decisive vote of the people. They too failed. Similar fruitless effort were made in Seattle in the hope of unseating the present mayor, himself the successful candidate at a recall election. Des Moines and Haverhill record the same experiences.

All these abortive movements tend to demonstrate that a reasonably large petition is a real safeguard against a recall based upon slight reasons. And another fact is not without cogency: With this power to depose a galaxy of elected officials within the reach of the people of 250 cities, the number of cases in which it has been brought to a vote thus far is but eleven,[2] of which five were in cities which were under commission government at the time.

And even if past performances contain no absolute promises as to the future, it should be remembered that recalling a public officer is a troublesome, expensive business, not to be undertaken in a big city without more funds than a wholly irresponsible person or organization can easily command. Thus the cost of securing the necessary 8500 signatures (8 per cent of the registered voters) to a popular measure in Oregon experience is found to be about $1500. Recall petitions require as a rule from two to three times this number of signers. In New York City on this basis a 25 per cent recall petition would cost something like $45,000. This would be but the initial expense. Add to it the cost of printing and distributing literature and of hall rent for conducting a campaign. The leaders of the campaigns in Los Angeles, Seattle and Tacoma knew that success only comes after an infinite deal of effort to reach the individual voter in his own neighborhood with convincing evidence.

So that from its own designed clumsiness the recall in its usual form, is its own prophylactic. By its own mechanism it has so far effectively taken care of the mischief-making fraternity. In the absence of a serious reason for its use it has proved itself unworkable. And generously[3] have the fashioners of this instrument estimated the possible number of those who thoughtlessly or for trivial cause would invoke its use.

But how about the larger and more sober host which deliver the final verdict? Not only have the fashioners of the recall provided against a tyranny of insignificant and thoughtless minorities, but they have made due allowance for the working of the sober second thought of the majority. Those "momentary gusts of passion" celebrated in Mr. Taft's Arizona veto message, with just a suggestion that they were a more or less typical phenomenon among our people, have no real existence under any recall scheme unless one may stretch the moments to cover a period of days and weeks, the interval between the filing of the petition and the election. But what becomes of the essential justice with which the law has sought to hedge about the tenure of public officers? The American people have been exceptionally generous in this matter, for while they have never conceded to public office the characteristics of property or contract, they have surrounded it with similar immunities. Thus the principle of due notice and an opportunity to be heard in one's defense is rarely overlooked in the statutory forms of removal.

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[2] Twice in Los Angeles and Dallas and once in Seattle; Tacoma; Huron, S. D.; Wichita, Kan.; Estacada and Junction City, Ore.; San Bernardino, Cal.

[3] The number of petitions required to institute a recall election varies from 15 per cent to 35 per cent.

Formally, though of course in no strict judicial sense, the recall preserves these immunities. The statement of charges on the petition is a rough indictment. Opportunity follows for the officer to prepare and present his case, through the press and on the platform.

But, as one might say, this is no impartial trial which the people give; theirs is a rough and ready justice; they ignore the elaborate immunities which the law has laid around the accused parties; they admit irrelevant evidence; they give to suspicion and prejudice the weight of facts.

True, the electors lack many of the ideal characteristics of a just judge and an impartial jury. But right here a misconception must be met: The recall is a political, not a civil instrument. And for that reason its procedure is not capable of the close circumscription which is possible in the case of the civil procedure. But the political processes do have certain rough analogies to the other. For example, may it not be said that a good political equivalent for judicial immunities is the habit of conservative fairmindedness among the people, which gives an official a chance to prove his worth as a public agent? And lest this conception appear a mere nebulous fancy, let us consider some of the facts of the recall in its actual use:

The seriousness of the occasions upon which the recall has actually been brought to the point of a popular vote is to my mind, an evidence of this spirit. Let us take the principal cases in the order of their occurrence.

The city of Los Angeles had had the recall in its charter one year before an election thereunder had been held. One of the ward councilmen was then put on the carpet, as it were, on several charges. One allegation was that he had taken the liquor interests into his confidence and that his public acts were influenced by that connection. That he voted to establish an offensive slaughter house in his district is a matter of public record. That he received money for his vote on this question was a matter of suspicion. An election was held and the councilman was duly recalled but on technical grounds he secured a writ of mandamus to compel the city council to allow him to retain his seat. Later, a second election was held and he was again recalled. He carried but one of the sixteen precincts in his ward and his opponent received 63 per cent of the votes cast. Whether or not the evidence in this case would have proven a violation of the statutes which would have made removal possible in the ordinary way I am unable to say. Certainly the persistency of his constituents in bringing his official conduct to a popular vote is a *prima facie* evidence of a deep and well-founded suspicion of his lack of sincerity, and an adverse vote of 63 per cent is rather conclusive evidence of the voters' lack of confidence.

The first use of the recall in the case of a mayor was that of Mr. A. C. Harper of the same city. Mr. Harper, elected in 1906, had not been long in office when it began to appear that his appointments were not directed primarily by considerations of public interest, but with a view to satisfying office seekers. Within a year after his election the city prosecutor complained of laxness in the enforcement of the vice laws. The responsibility for this condition clearly lay with the mayor and an appointee of his on the police commission. The charge was made, and supported by specific evidence, that the mayor and police commissioner were protecting vice. This, however, the mayor vigorously denied, with a challenge to an investigation before the grand jury, which happened to be in session at the time. The matter was immediately taken up by them. After months of investigation a majority report was filed, which found that the laws relating to vice were sufficiently definite, and were quite enforceable, but that they had been neglected by the administration. The jury, however, refused to file a presentment on the ground that since the investigation had begun, the laws had been enforced. But a minority report, however, definitely accused the mayor and the police officials of complicity with the vicious elements in the city. In the face of this evidence, the Municipal League in Los Angeles, in the spring of 1909, assumed the responsibility for a recall campaign. The outcome was the unseating of Harper and the election of George Alexander as his successor.

In Dallas, Texas, the recall has twice been invoked in the case of school trustees. In the face of a strong popular protest and for alleged political reasons, the school trustees removed the principal and a teacher of the high school, both of whom were popular favorites. No charges against these men were brought at the time of removal[4] and the public demanded for them both the reasons for removal and a public hearing on the merits of their case. Two members voted against a public hearing, and it was against them that the recall was successfully directed. Once their successors were seated in the board a demand arose for an investigation of the administration of the school superintendent. The investigation started but the remnant of the old board is said to have blocked every attempt which would have produced evidence damaging to their appointee. Again the recall was invoked and two of the recalcitrant trustees were ousted. (The charter of Dallas requires a 35 per cent petition to institute a recall election.)

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[4] My correspondence does not show whether or not this was a violation of the law or the teachers' contract.

The Seattle charter contained a recall provision for four years before it was directed against Mayor Hiram C. Gill in the fall of 1910. This officer had irritated the public through his opposition to important public improvements. He had seemed to play into the interest of the local electric lighting company. He had opposed the establishment of a garbage crematory. But the most serious opposition to his administration arose out of his conduct of police affairs. It seems above doubt that gambling and other forms of vice were flourishing under police protection. Finally the city council on November 21, 1910, made an investigation through a committee of five of its members and brought specific charges of maladministration. After a lively campaign the mayor was removed.

The Tacoma recall in 1911 was launched against the entire commission. The situation here is not at all plain, but out of the many accounts seem to come these facts. The people of Tacoma in adopting the commission form of government, had given too little heed to the calibre of the men they elected. The man whom they chose for mayor was a seasoned office holder, avowedly hostile to the new idea of government, but with a big personal following which he had cultivated by various charities and a general reputation of being a "good fellow." Other men of mediocre ability were elected to commissionerships. A factious spirit arose in the city council and the enforcement of the laws languished. The net result was a big increase in the cost of government during the first year under the new charter which the people resented. Mayor Fawcett too lost support by getting through an "anti-treating" ordinance and other acts regarded locally as "freak" legislation. To effect "a new deal" all around the recall was invoked as the most able instrument. A series of elections followed, in which the mayor and two other commissioners were displaced.

Almost simultaneously with the trouble in Tacoma, a recall movement was instituted against the commission in Huron, S. D. The force propelling this step was apparently the increase of taxation. For the first time in the history of the city the council had provided a sinking fund to meet outstanding indebtedness. This meant an increase of taxation amounting to $25,000.00. A sufficient number of petitions (15 per centum) was secured to cause the recall to be submitted to a vote at the regular spring election. The effort, however, failed.

Since that time, the recall has been successfully invoked in Wichita, Kan. A year ago a bitter primary election was waged for city officers. By a shrewd disposition of their forces in a three-cornered fight, the supporters of the successful candidates managed to narrow down the final contest for the mayoralty to two men, both of whom were signally unsatisfactory to all but their immediate supporters. The third faction felt that they had been tricked. Almost immediately after the opening of the new administration recall petitions were put into circulation against the mayor and two other commissioners. No charges of graft were made but the recallers found issues in matters of public policy. The mayor, it is said, had sought to unload on the city, by purchase, the plant of a private water company at a figure much higher than its actual value. Other minor issues were found. Either side was hotly upheld by one of the leading newspapers and resulted in the retirement of the mayor and another commissioner.

Such in brief is the history of the successful campaigns.[5] Just how great has been the potential, that is, the admonitory, effect of the recall on officials subject to its operation, is, of course, impossible even to estimate. An account of this phase, if it were only obtainable, would make interesting reading, but we must stick to the more potent facts. Never yet has the recall been successfully invoked, without its promoters having at least a good semblance of a public purpose in mind. Whether or not the reasons for invoking it would have been serious enough to have brought the question of removal through the ordinary means into the forum of trial is beside the point. It remains reasonably certain that in each case a majority of the electors found substantial reason to revise their judgment of public men in the light of their actual service and had a competent means to put their judgment into effect. That is to say, the recall campaigns appear to have been, on the whole, both sane and just from the *political* point of view. And the recall has been an effective instrument in so far as without superfluous definitions of its purpose, it has reached certain aggravated accumulations of unrepresentative acts which, singly, might not have been grave or serious enough to have been reached by any other method.

Not only have the reasons for each removal been politically substantial, but the merits of each case have received an adequate public hearing—in the political sense. No one can wade through the newspaper accounts of the Los Angeles, Seattle, Tacoma or Wichita campaigns without being convinced that every material fact of the cases has been brought out and discussed from every possible angle. Civic societies and neighborhood improvement clubs in each of the cities took responsibility in the campaigns to themselves. Small halls and big auditoriums were brought into use by both parties to the contests. No citizen needfully missed an understanding of what was going on. All the interest of an ordinary election

[5] The available data on the use of the recall in San Bernardino, Cal., and Estacada and Junction City, Ore., are too incomplete to justify conclusions of any kind.

campaign was present, with an added measure of personal interest thrown in. And so searching has been the calcium upon the administration of the accused officials, that with one or two exceptions these men have sought to withdraw their case from the popular forum to a safer haven in the courts of law. In so doing they have flatly denied the political character of the recall; they have treated it by implication as an impudent attack upon their civil rights. They have been inclined to forget that by their own word of mouth in their campaign for election, they made definite promises. And those promises consisted not in assurances that they would be honest and efficient and keep out of jail, but that they would conform their course in office to the wishes and interests of the people.

The recall is the first instrument which has ever been given to the people of American cities for isolating their unrepresentative officials and applying an appropriate remedy to their offenses. And this is the recall in practice: not a "nostrum" of "Neurotics" or a firebrand in the hands of an infuriated mob, but a simple guarantee of representative conduct on the part of public officials *between elections.*

SHORT ARTICLES

BOSTON'S STREET RAILWAYS

DURING the past year nothing really novel or extraordinary has arisen in the general relations between the street railways and the public. Perhaps the most noteworthy development during this period is found in the extension of the idea of regulation by commission. Among the states which have newly adopted this method of regulation in its most modern form, Ohio and Connecticut are conspicuous. Even in conservative Massachusetts whose pioneer railroad commission, though weak in legal power has yet been mighty in strength, the newer ideas were vigorously urged by the legislature, and the attempt was made to confer on its commission practically all the power of compulsion possessed by many of the later commissions. Outside of Massachusetts we find the general spirit of commissions is to call themselves weak, unless possessed of the most plenary power to oversee and supervise practically every act; and to undo practically every decision which the management of the corporation may make.

In Massachusetts, however, broad and extensive as are the powers of the commission in many cases, there is another very important class of cases in which no such power exists, and yet the conclusions of the commission are as highly respected and as cheerfully accepted both by the public and by corporation in one class of cases, as in the other. This is really an excellent example of the development of the system of governmental regulation of this class of business. The adherence by the Massachusetts railroad commission to the theory of impartiality, the painstaking character of its investigations and researches before a conclusion is reached and the fairness and courage exhibited in its decisions, have aroused the admiration and respect of many other states.

It would seem that the general tendency of the times is to push unduly railroad management and corporate interests. In the field of all public service corporations there is only one asset upon which the company can permanently count. A company may have its right of way; its power plant; its general equipment; its cash resources; above all these its one great asset is the good will of the public, and if the anti-corporate tendency of the times brings these public service corporations to a realization of this fact, it will be best for all concerned. Publicity is the only means by which the public service corporations can remove public prejudice and cultivate the public goodwill.

The prevention of accidents has been one of the problems that has given the street railway companies a great deal of concern since the introduction of the electric cars. A vast majority of the accidents can be attributed to the lack of care of the persons killed or injured. To obviate these, the street railway companies have used every method possible to notify people of the responsibility that not alone is upon the passenger, but on those who use the streets. During the week beginning December 10, 1911, the Boston Elevated Railway Company published in the daily and weekly newspapers of Boston and vicinity an advertisement announcing a prize competition for verses in rhyme, written by pupils in the high schools and corresponding grades of private schools, living in the municipalities in which the company operates. The theme was "Caution in the streets, particularly relating to street cars." The object sought was "To compel the children to think and remember." In response to this announcement nearly 750 poems were received. Two hundred and eight prizes in gold were awarded for the best verses. The following poem which took a first prize of $50 is an excellent example of the standard set:

THE ELECTRIC CAR'S TALE

A giant of wonderful power am I,
  An ogre with many hands;
My hands are destruction, illness and death
  And I've homes in a great many lands.

My jacket is painted a very bright hue,
  Of yellow, deep orange or red;
I have loud-ringing gongs as a warning to you
  And a brilliant white light at my head.

Now all of you children, small laddies and maid,
  Though you're not a great monarch like me,
Your friend I would be, but your foe I am made,
  For my signals you ne'er seem to see.

You race o'er the tracks and you hop on my side,
  Disregarding my bell's warning clang.
And many a child who has stolen a ride
  Has experienced pain's deadly pang.

There are pale hopeless cripples, young maidens and boys
  Who have paid a sad forfeit to me.
They cannot partake of youth's manifold joys,
  For my signs they neglected to see.

So now I will finish with just one command
  For laddies and small lassies sweet;
Don't race in the way of the king of the land;
  Watch for me when you're crossing the street.

Anna Louise McCarthy.

The company undoubtedly hopes by this method to secure the coöperation of those who have the custody and instruction of children in their effort to compel the children to think and remember about cars when crossing the streets or stealing rides.

About 3500 employees of the Boston Elevated Railway Company were rewarded January 1, 1912, by the corporation for faithful service during the year. Following the custom adopted several years ago more than $80,000 in gold coin was distributed among men who were in the service of the company at least six months and made creditable records during 1911. Those who had not earned a reward in 1910, but did in 1911, were given $20. Those whose records and length of service entitled them to rewards for 1911 and 1910 too, were given $25.

Nowadays, corporations are so big that the individual is likely to be obscured, and anything that reminds an employee that he is a personality whose individual contribution of service counts in the general scheme is likely to make that employee take a new interest in his work. This is particularly true when such gifts are bestowed as rewards for personal merit. Every man who is honored by one of these gifts, whether it is small or large, has a fine glow of satisfaction in finding his effort recognized, and has a new incentive to efficient and courteous service.

It is especially appropriate that such a system of reward should be applied by a public service corporation, and the size of the rewards should be gauged by the employees' service to the public. Too often the managers of public utilities overlook the fact that intelligence, industry and courtesy shown by employees who come into contact with the public is really the most valuable form of loyalty to the company they serve.

The most important recent franchise change was the act of the board of railroad commissioners on January 1, 1912, in announcing the granting of permission to the Boston Elevated Railway Company to carry express and freight over its lines by means of electric cars, notwithstanding the refusal of the Boston city council to act favorably upon the petition at a hearing held shortly before. The commission found that public interest and convenience required the granting of the company's petition, but the commission's order allowing the same was made subject to the following regulations and restrictions:

1. The company shall receive and deliver baggage, express and freight at suitable places or stations and without discrimination or favor to any person or corporation.

2. No authority is herein granted to the company to transport baggage, freight or express matter, except by or in electric cars, or to delegate or lease to any other persons or corporation the rights hereby granted.

3. All baggage, express and freight shall be transported in suitable cars, to be provided with proper fenders, brakes and safety appliances, and to be

run at no time at a higher rate of speed than that at which the company operates passengers cars.

4. The exercise of authority herein granted shall in no way alter or abridge the duties and obligations of the company relative to the transportation of passengers, nor in any way interfere with the conduct of the passenger service.

5. The facilities by which and the manner in which the business is conducted shall be subject to supervision and regulation by the board from time to time as the public interests may require.

6. The authority herein granted is given upon the express condition that it shall not operate in any way to enhance the value of the assets of the company in the event of a purchase of the railway property by the city or state.

There are in the United States 823 cities and towns in which electric railways now operate an electric freight and express business, and it is in a manner very similar in all details to that in which it is conducted in other cities, that it is the desire of the Boston Elevated Railway Company to operate in Boston. One or more terminals as is customary in other cities will be established in the metropolitan district as near the center of the city as the conditions will permit and from these points cars will be operated over such routes and in such manner as will not interfere with the passenger traffic to outlying terminals. It is the intention of the company to receive and deliver express, freight and baggage at the various terminals. All the freight and express so received will be transported over the rails by electric cars to outlying terminals or to connecting roads.

The railroad commission has full jurisdiction in regulating the manner in which the service is to be conducted, the rates to be charged, cars, routes, etc. The company appreciates perfectly that its primary duty lies in the proper conduct of its passenger business; but it does believe that there is an opportunity for it to act as a common carrier of freight in such a manner as not to interfere with its passenger business.

The annual report of the Massachusetts railroad commission shows the street railway companies of the state made a net increase during the past year in mileage of 15,528 miles of street railway line, 2499 miles of second track, 18,027 miles additional side track, making a total net increase of 25,492 miles. The aggregate capital stock of the 66 companies June 30, 1911, was $86,639,175—an increase of $2,294,110 over the amount returned June 30, 1910. The total amount of dividends declared the past year was $4,788,907.24. The total number of passengers carried during the year on the railways in operation as reported by the 72 companies making returns to the Board was 683,362,717. The report shows that there are now in Massachusetts 2111.22 miles of main and branch railroad line; that the total length of railroad track within the Commonwealth is 4816.31 miles. The aggregate capital stock June 30, 1911, of the 30

Massachusetts corporations, Nantucket excepted, was $324,445,165.70—a net increase of $39,344,825 over the previous year. The total amount of dividends declared during the year was $21,780,406.45—an increase of $2,783,749.45. The average rate of dividend paid was 6.73 per cent.

In compliance with a resolve of the Massachusetts legislature of 1910, the board of railroad commissioners and the Boston transit commission sitting jointly, held public hearings, duly advertised, on the question whether it was advisable, expedient and in the public interest to provide in advance of the expiration thereof, for extensions of the existing leases to the Boston Elevated Railway Company, of the subways and tunnels in Boston. After careful study, consideration and thorough discussion, the joint commission submitted a comprehensive report.

It found unanimously that it was advisable, expedient and in the public interest to provide for the extension of existing subway and tunnel leases to 1936, and further it recommended the expiration on the same date of leases or contracts for the use of all new subways and tunnels not executed but authorized. In the bill which it drafted, the joint board recommended that either the city or the company should have the option to secure further extensions beyond 1936, in connection with a further provision for determination by three arbitrators appointed by the chief justice of the Massachusetts Supreme Judicial Court, of both the length of the further period and the rate of rental required in order to make it possible for Boston to pay at maturity, without renewal, all bonds heretofore or hereafter issued by the city for subway or tunnel purposes.

It was and is the consensus of opinion that an orderly and comprehensive design for the street railway system of Boston is desirable and extremely important. If private capital is to continue to furnish transportation for Boston, it is axiomatic that it should and must be upon the ordinary terms of business, namely, the expectation of profit. At least the mercantile and business portions of the population realize that the street railway company should not and cannot be required to embark upon extensive and expensive additions to its system without being assured, on some basis, of the integrity of its system. On the other hand, it is equally clear that if the public through its legislature insures the company stability of tenure of its leases and contract rights that the needed improvements in transportation facilities and service should not be delayed.

The whole trend of legislation in Massachusetts has been to give the public and the street railways a fair show, and to leave disputed questions to the judgment of expert tribunals—the board of railroad commissioners or the Boston transit commission. The strength of the commission idea when fairly sustained by law has been demonstrated here in Massachusetts. It is true that the decisions and conclusions of the railroad commissioners do not depend for their effectiveness on the legal authority of that commission but are accepted as cheerfully by the public and corporation both, and are as willingly complied with, if they come within the recommendatory power which that commission has, as if they fall within the commission's power of mandate.

After the report of the railroad commission on the question of extension of leases and building new subways, a long public discussion both in the papers and on public platforms followed, and in July, 1911, it was finally settled, and as is usual in Massachusetts, it was settled in favor of the people. It was a complete victory for the business organizations and newspapers of the city that insisted upon short term leases. It was a triumph for public opinion and particularly for the men and institutions that have championed the interests of the city and directed and formed public opinion The bills which were finally passed by the legislature were in substance satisfactory to the public, represented by the newspapers and organizations, to the city officials and to the street railway companies concerned. A large part of the credit for the settlement of this question, which threatened to lead to much trouble in the legislature, without any satisfactory result in the year 1911, must be given to Governor Eugene N. Foss.

The substance of the bills which eventually went on to the statute books is as follows:

1. The extension of all the existing subway leases until 1936.
2. Leases running until 1936 for the newly authorized subways and extension of East Boston Tunnel.
3. The newly authorized Boylston Street and Dorchester tunnels, and the extension of the East Boston Tunnel to be built at once and leased to the Boston Elevated Railway Company at a rental of 4½ per cent per annum.
4. All leases of existing and authorized subways and tunnels after 1936 to be considered as indefinitely extended, subject to annulment by the city of Boston, upon direction so to do by an act of the state legislature, or by a vote of the Boston city council, approved by the Board of railroad commissioners. The Boston Elevated Railway Company may likewise terminate all said leases on July 1, 1936, by giving to the mayor of Boston at least two years' prior notice in writing.
5. Consolidation of the Boston Elevated Railway Company and the West End Street Railway Company, instead of a fifty-year lease of the latter by the former on a 7 per cent basis.

The most essential point in the agitation was that the differences among those interested should not be allowed to stand in the way of the three main features of public interest, namely, to provide for immediate progress on the new subways, to make the various subway and tunnel leases expire at the same time instead of expiring at various scattered dates, and to clear up the situation with regard to the West End Street Railway. All these things were accomplished by the legislation which was finally enacted.

By special legislation enacted early in the year 1911, and under a unanimous approving order of the Massachusetts railroad commission, the Boston and Northern Street Railway Company on June 29, 1911, absorbed the Old Colony Street Railway Company, and the two systems are now one. Both roads have been owned for several years by the Massachusetts Electric Companies, a voluntary holding company, and, therefore, had been practically under the same management, but they remained until June 29, 1911, separate companies with separate officers, accounts and other business details. The merged company has the largest mileage of any railway system in Massachusetts.

Special legislation was necessary to merge the systems, because they do not connect, and under the general street railway law the railroad commission cannot approve a consolidation of companies which have no physical connection with each other. The merger is the largest of its kind to pass through the railroad commission. So many parties were directly interested in the deal that notices of the public hearings had to be sent to 89 cities and towns, and 125 copies of the board's orders had to be issued.

Abraham E. Pinanski.[1]

MUNICIPAL STREET CLEANING AND ITS PROBLEMS

THE American methods of municipal street cleaning have long been the subject of the most frequent, if not the most intelligent criticism. Citizens have often resorted to comparison between the cleanliness of streets in European cities and the deplorable waste of money and effort in municipal street cleaning in this country. These frequent criticisms and comparisons have resulted in a chaotic multiplicity of experiments that lack scientific backing, and are handicapped by a false conception of economy which by the employment of superanuated and inefficient workers tends to save expense in the poor department and avoid congestion in the old men's home, to the detriment of street cleaning work and public comfort.

Until recently a street, from the standpoint of municipal government, was considered a thoroughfare, or a means of reaching various parts of the community without regard to the surrounding property, be that of a business or residential character. A closer observation, however, makes it clear that the street is essentially the means of approaching a home and of serving its conveniences. It is the hallway which connects the school and the church, the factory and the office with the home. From the standpoint of the tenement dweller, the street is the nursery and playground of young, the social center and meeting place of the adult, the free market place for the transaction of business, and the display and distribution of the food supply. Not infrequently during hot weather the street is the common bedroom of the dweller in the congested, ill-ventilated and over-heated tenement house district. With such broad functions it is clear that the construction and care of streets implies more than the requirements of accessibility, easy grade and safety. What is needed is a permanent adjustment to the needs of the neighborhood of the methods of construction and maintenance of streets so as to make their use healthful and pleasant

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[1] Mr. Pinanski who won the Baldwin Prize of the National Municipal League in 1908, is now connected with the legal department of the Boston Elevated Railway Company.

The maintenance of clean streets also involves an important sanitary problem which so far has not received the attention that it deserves. Street dust while not of necessity loaded with dangerous diseases producing bacilli is injurious to the health. This dust, as is well known, contains tiny fragments from the wear and tear of pavements and building material, minute particles of quartz or other mineral substances, which when inhaled lacerate the delicate membranes of the air passage, thus serving as inoculation needles which permit entrance into the system of any tuberculosis or other disease germs which may be present on the mucous membrane. That disease germs are frequently present in the nose and throat of apparently healthy individuals has been conclusively shown by various experiments. It is unnecessary to point out that this devastating dust is not confined to the street, but is projected with every gust through open windows into our living and sleeping rooms, our offices and stores, where it continues its work of injury to the human system and destroys millions of dollars worth of merchandise annually.

The breeding of flies and other vermin against which such frequent and costly sanitary campaigns are directed is due in no small part to the lack of proper refuse removal from our streets and the premises abutting on our streets. This subject of refuse removal brings up the larger problem of the removal of garbage and refuse by the municipality, and suggests at least the broadening of the work of the street cleaning department so as to include the efficient removal of all waste and refuse whether they be deposited on our streets, alleys or back yards. From what has been said above it would seem, therefore, that street cleaning has a broad social significance. It is a problem which affects and is affected by our method of refuse removal and disposal, the pollution of the air by smoke nuisances and other mineral wastes from manufacture, the methods of preventing and controlling dust, etc.

A study of the street cleaning methods employed in eleven New England cities disclosed them to be inefficient because of the difficulty on the part of the authorities and the public to realize the following principles:

(a) Clean streets can be maintained only with a proper system of prevention of dust and refuse.

(b) Street cleaning involves scientific principles which require the service of well-trained and experienced leaders.

(c) Street cleaning is expensive but is a good investment.

(d) Clean streets cannot be secured without well built pavements.

(e) Street cleaning requires the intelligence and effort of efficient men who can do eight hours work in eight hours time.

(f) To maintain clean streets we must have the coöperation of the city departments concerned with the maintenance of order and cleanliness and unflinching support of the public.

The failure to apply these principles is undoubtedly the most deep-rooted cause of our inefficient street cleaning work. In order to define more clearly the problems of dust and refuse prevention and removal, the writer made a careful analysis of about sixty miles of street in five different New England cities, analyzing the various kinds of dust and litter, scrutinizing the abutting property and watching the traffic in its influence upon the cleanliness of streets. In order to make the analysis more thorough six different types of pavement were included in the sixty miles examined with the idea of forming an estimate both of the problems of dust and litter formation, their accumulation and removal. Generally speaking the following causes were found to be prevalent:

A. MAIN CAUSES OF DUST

1. Litter produced by the wear and tear on the street caused by traffic, weather conditions and delay in street repairs.
2. The dust and litter produced by the construction of private and public buildings.
3. The falling and decay of leaves, bark and other vegetable matter falling into the street from trees and other vegetation.
4. The improper banking up of land which is above the street level and which through the influence of weather conditions yields a certain amount of dust and mud that is carried into the gutters and streets.
5. Materials carried into the city streets by vehicles coming from country districts with mud or other litter adhering to the wheels or other parts of the vehicles.
6. The highway construction and repair which entails the use of dust-producing materials such as sand and crushed stone.

B. MINOR CAUSES OF DUST

7. The tearing up of streets in underground construction.

8. Dust coming from adjoining unaccepted and unconstructed streets.

9. Dust, soot, ashes and other mineral matter particularly soot coming from manufacturing concerns.

10. The waste materials caused by the decay of parts of buildings particularly, shingles from roofs, dry paint, falling plaster, etc.

A. MAIN SOURCES OF REFUSE

1. The droppings of horses and other animals using the streets.

2. The refuse caused by the throwing into the street of waste and refuse by tenants in tenements abutting upon the streets, and the tracking and sweeping of refuse from the homes, stores and cellars into the streets.

3. The overflow of refuse from ill-kept yards, and alley-ways into the street.

4. Papers and refuse thrown into the street by pedestrians and persons traveling in vehicles, particularly street cars.

5. Litter produced in the unloading and loading of merchandise and by the small street stores which display much of their wares upon the sidewalks or carry them in vehicles through the streets, as well as the dropping of materials from imperfectly loaded wagons, particularly those which are used in the transportation of waste materials.

6. The improper fencing in, or protection of public and private dumps which makes possible the carrying into the street by the wind, or other means, of paper, dust, ashes, etc.

B. MINOR SOURCES OF REFUSE

7. The absence of proper fences about unoccupied land which is frequently used by the neighborhood as a dumping ground.

8. The removal of advertisements from bulletin boards without proper care of the waste preparatory to the application of new advertising matter.

Even a casual analysis of the above causes of dust and refuse would indicate that a large share of street cleaning work is of a preventive character, the value of which can hardly be over estimated. The amount of preventable refuse and dust has been variously estimated at from 60 to 90 per cent of the total now found upon our streets and alleys, and the examination made by the writer of large areas of street would warrant such estimates. That this fact is not generally known to city officials is evident from the fact that most of them seem to mistake activity for efficiency, and expenditure for service. On the other hand there is a striking lack of coordination between street cleaning work and street construction, and a distribution of responsibility between various city departments which makes it impossible to control street conditions without the conflicting authority of a number of municipal agencies.

It is not within the scope of this article to discuss the modern methods of street cleaning. The most that can be done is to consider briefly the recent experience of American cities and abroad which has shown unmistakably that the following factors are fundamental in determining the degree of efficiency attainable in street cleaning work.

1. PAVEMENTS

City streets, particularly in congested sections, should be constructed of smooth, washable and sweepable material. This has not been a general practice in American communities. Macadam roads of various kinds with their dust producing tendencies have been constructed in some of the most congested sections of our cities, and this not excepting the public thoroughfares where street cars and elevated railways mingle their noises with the dust of automobiles, carriages and heavy trucks. The macadam street, even under the best condition, is productive of dust, and as they cannot be swept freely without injury to the surface they are practically useless from the point of view of clean streets. The type of pavement to be chosen for a particular district must of course be determined by the amount and kind of traffic, the congestion of population, the changes in season, the grade and the presence or absence of trees. Under any condition, however, a pavement which is of itself dust-producing, unless heavily tarred, or in some other way bound with material which prevents the formation of dust should not be encouraged. In the construction of pavements the amount and type of street cleaning work that may be necessary for proper maintenance and the influence that such work may have upon the pavement and the air (which is part of the street) and the character of the neighborhood in which it is constructed should be most seriously and most carefully considered, by well trained and experienced officials.

2. TRAFFIC

One of the most serious evils in street cleaning work is the absence of proper traffic regulation and distribution. Frequently some of the poorest and most crowded tenement districts are traversed by streets which carry heavy traffic and which are used as thoroughfares for railways and railroads of varying kinds and speed. Such a condition of traffic congestion deprives the people residing in the districts of the privilege of using and enjoying the streets which are the only accessible out-doors facilities for them. The difficulty in the way of proper street cleaning under such conditions of traffic can be easily realized, and the discomfort to the tenants resulting therefrom may be discovered by casual examination on the part of even the least observing citizen. Only when the working classes are housed on streets which are largely devoted to the use of the tenement dweller and when foreign traffic is diverted to subways and business streets will street cleaning become effectual in the poorer districts. From the point of view of street cleaning work more must be done towards the regulation of traffic and street specialization.

3. SPRINKLING AND FLUSHING

The dust produced by street pavements, whether they be rough or smooth must be laid or removed as frequently as possible. The open doors and windows of the houses and stores, the exposure of human beings to the dust of the streets, are recognized to be injurious, and for this reason, if for no other, it must be prevented or removed. The ridiculous and selfish "*potato patch street sprinkling*" used in some of the American municipalities where abutting owners pay for the service is one of the shames of our city government, and European cities would laugh at such an unintelligent and undemocratic practice. Some of the municipalities sprinkle only the better residential sections, and leave the tenement district to the chance sprinkling bestowed by natural sources. The municipalities of the future are sure to build their streets so that they would need no sprinkling, and where washing would be the practice. A system of water supply separate from the general water supply of the city, which could be put into use for the purpose of washing streets is already part of the water supply systems of many cities, and the time is not far distant when such systems will be an inherent part of our street maintenance department. Only by washing can we remove the dust and bacteria with any degree of certainty and prevent their accumulation and distribution.

Here must also be raised an objection against the common practice of oiling streets. Greasy, sticky dust is not what is needed. The homes of the poor are hard to keep clean under any condition and the oiled street is an added hardship to the already overworked and discouraged householder. There is no reason why at this stage of our municipal development every city should not build its streets as non-dust-producing as possible without the use of materials which increase rather than reduce filth. That oiling does furnish some relief can not be denied, but its effect is only temporary while as a germ destroyer it has proven worse than useless.

4. REFUSE REMOVAL

The removal of refuse from yards in many of our municipalities is left to the chance of uninforced and sometimes nonexisting city ordinances, Health regulations and city ordinances are, in the vast majority of cases. not enforced, and property owners allow back yards to remain in a state of dilapidation from year to year. Cities should be subject to a system of police or health regulations that are enforceable and enforced, and which would place the responsibility for refuse removal either upon the city authorities or upon property owners. If such regulations were made the general practice in American municipalities we would solve not only the problem of maintaining proper surroundings, but we would reduce our street cleaning bill by reducing the over-flow of refuse from yards into streets.

5. POLICE CONTROL

One of the most effective means of maintaining our streets in a cleanly condition is police coöperation. When we speak of police coöperation we do not mean the bullying of citizens and the fining of poor tenants for neglect, nor the arresting of people at irregular and unexpected times for the purpose of creating city revenues and hard feeling. The function of the police officer in coöperation with the street cleaning department should be one of supervision and education and the time is not far off when our police officers will have to be recognized as "agents of the peace" and protectors of community health, by making the prevention rather than the discovery of crime their chief function.

6. PUBLIC COÖPERATION

There is no function of municipal government which depends so largely upon the public for an effective carrying out of its work as street cleaning. It is important, therefore, that a wide-spread educational campaign be constantly maintained by the street cleaning department, the schools and the health authorities whereby emphasis would be placed upon the importance of municipal cleanliness as an important asset in the maintenance of personnal cleanliness.

7. DEPARTMENTAL ORGANIZATION AND COÖPERATION

Conflict between the duties and functions of the highway department, the street cleaning department, the police authorities and the board of health in matters of preventing conditions of uncleanliness of streets and their surroundings has frequently interfered with the work of cleaning streets. Unsupervised and improperly closed street openings; a poor system of household refuse removal, the indifference of police officers relative to the enforcement of street cleaning ordinances are evils that can be avoided by a proper coördination of street cleaning functions and intelligent distribution of responsibility among city deportment.

Where the effective handling of the seven factors above enumerated ends the work of street cleaning begins. What the method of cleaning should be must be determined entirely by the conditions that prevail in each community and the facilities available. The philosophy of clean streets may be stated in the following formula: *The least amount of cleaning work with a correspondingly high amount of preventive service; the least amount of expenditure of money with the highest regard for public health and comfort.*

Carol Aronovici, Ph.D.[1]

To supplement this suggestive article of Dr. Aronovici's we print herewith by special permission of the *Engineering News*, Mr. Rudolph Hering's review of Dr. Niedner's important brochure on "Street Cleaning in Germany."

STREET CLEANING IN GERMANY[2]

The clean condition of the cities of Germany, when compared with those of other countries, including even Paris, which was once considered the cleanest city of the world, has become a matter of comment, sufficiently to make the appearance of a work describing the cleaning of German cities a matter of much interest to all who are engaged in this branch of engineering. The author is a municipal engineer in the city of Dresden, and besides treating of German cities in general gives special attention to his home city and to the experiences elicited from engineers during the International Congress of Street Cleaning held in Brussels in 1910.

The book is concisely and well written, well illustrated and supplied with tabular matter. The metric measure and German money are, of course, the units in which the data are given. But cost data are given generally also on the basis of time and square meters per annum.

The subject is divided into and discussed under five heads: (1) Ordinary Cleaning, (2) Suppression of Dust, (3) Winter Cleaning, (4) Roughening of Smooth Pavements, (5) Organization of Street Cleaning Departments.

The discussion of ordinary cleaning is divided into superficial and thorough cleaning. The former refers to gathering up manure, paper, and rejected food wastes. The brooms, shovels and other tools, barrels and hand-carts are described and many are illustrated. Thorough cleansing is discussed under the headings of hand sweeping, machine sweeping, and flushing. The details of the apparatus are described and their efficiency is stated.

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[1] Director Bureau of Social Research of Rhode Island. Organized first Street Cleaning Conference held in the United States.

[2] *Die Strassenreinigung in den Deutschen Staedten unter Besonderer Beruecksichtigung der Dresdner Strassenreinigung*—By Dr.-Ing. Franz Niedner, Stadtbaumeister Privatdozent an der Königlich Technischen Hochschule zu Dresden. Leipzig; Wilhelm Engelmann. Paper; 7½x11 in.; pp. 99; 5 plates, 66 text illustrations and 22 tables. Marks 4; American price, $1.60, net.

The sweeping machine is credited with cleaning 5000 to 6000 square meters in one hour. It is sometimes preferred to sprinkle the surface a short time before sweeping to increase the efficiency of the latter, but sprinkling attachments are now being made to some of the machines, the water being delivered in front and the sweeping done at the rear. The water consumption is given as from 30 to 40 litres per 1000 square meters (6.6 to 8.8 gallons per 1000 square yards). Endeavors are being made at present to introduce vacuum cleaners, but they have as yet not been successful. Endeavors are also being made to abandon horse power and substitute electric and other powers.

The flushing of streets having large traffic, particularly of asphalt, wood and stone blocks, with asphalted joints, is proving to be the best means of cleaning. There is the flushing by hose or by wagon, followed by an automatic revolving broom or squeegee. The best method of flushing is stated to be, first, sprinkling so as to soften the dirt, and then flushing for final cleaning. This method may save water, but the condition of the street surface between the two treatments, unless immediately following each other, would be generally objectionable. Squeegee attachments are more generally preferred. The water consumption is given at about 1 litre per square meter.

The Helmers machine has sliding squeegee attachments, called scrubbers, sometimes preceded by a broom roller. The Hentschel machine has a revolving roller with screw-like arranged squeegee attachments. The water consumption ranges from $\frac{6}{10}$ to 1 litre per square meter, and the efficiency is about 4000 to 5000 square meters per hour. The use of motor wagons for flushing is becoming more common every year as the efficiency is found to be increased from 25 per cent to 50 per cent. The following chapter has a discussion as to the selection of the best means of cleaning for given conditions, such as wages, paving, traffic and weather. Another chapter relates to the frequency of cleaning, depending chiefly upon the amount of traffic and importance of the streets.

A chapter on the best time for cleaning calls attention to the importance of having a chief cleaning and an after cleaning for the removal chiefly of horse droppings and paper which accumulate on the streets almost continuosally. Night cleaning is customary in the busiest cities, but because of darkness, higher wages and less efficient work, it is endeavored to make most of the cleaning in the early morning hours, when the traffic is least. Importance is given to the necessity of cleaning adjoining streets simultaneously, so as to prevent as much as possible the dragging of dirt from uncleaned upon cleaned streets.

An interesting and valuable chapter then follows and covers the cost of cleaning different kinds of pavements and of cleaning them in different ways. Several of the tables give also the time necessary to clean a thousand square meters of different pavements in different ways, which makes these tables more directly applicable to countries having other wage units. These tables permit also of the best ways of arranging the cleaning so as to ascertain the amount of labor that will be necessary for a given stretch of street or given area and amount of dust.

A chapter is then devoted to the removal of the sweepings. Tables give the amounts gathered per square meter and per capita, showing the economy of good pavements and of good management.

The second division of the book treats of the suppression of dust. After the introduction relating to the hygienic dangers and nuisances of dust, the first chapter describes the systems of sprinkling employed to allay the dust. The amount of water used, for sprinkling, depending on the kind of pavement, ranges from 0.2 to 0.7 litre per square meter, and the number of sprinklings per annum ranges according to the kind of pavement, climate and traffic condition, from 30 to 500, and the number of days per annum requiring sprinkling range from 50 to 125. The conditions are stated under which sprinkling is most and is least effective, and a number of good rules are given.

A chapter relating to the use of various chemicals, hygroscopic salts, oils and bitumens, gives some interesting data concerning their efficiency in suppressing dust, and of the advantages and disadvantages in using them.

The following chapter describes practical means of measuring the amount of street dust. It is recommended to collect the samples on the sidewalks of a street and about from 1½ to 2½ meters above the surface. The measurement should indicate the weight of dust per cubic meter of air and the amount settled per square meter of street surface.

The Royal Hygienic Institutes of Dresden and Leipzig have made interesting and valuable observations regarding the dust quantities contained in city air. It is urged that cities should generally make such investigations on account of the increasing measures now being taken for dust suppression. A chapter then describes and illustrates various sprinkling wagons used in Germany, and indicates the growing use of automobile conveyance.

Three further chapters describe the means of filling sprinkling wagons with water, the quantity of water to be carried by them, and the cost of sprinkling. Diagrams and tables, reduced to areas, quantities, and per capita units, make them more generally useful to the profession. Suggestions are also given of the methods for obtaining the greatest efficiencies.

The third division of the book treats of the cleaning in winter. The snow-removal methods are described by words and illustrations. The best means of such removal and the cost thereof is discussed. Tables give quantities and cost, including also the per capita and per square meter data for cities ranging from the smallest up to 2,000,000 inhabitants.

To indicate the means of securing safety for horses and pedestrians on smooth pavements, and generally when sleet and ice cover them, the fourth division of the book is devoted to a description of sanding surfaces. Considerable attention and care are given to this matter in Europe and the book gives an account of the methods in use.

The fifth division relates to the organization of the street-cleaning department. In the smaller cities the cleaning should be and is most frequently done by the abutters. In the larger ones it is exclusively done by the municipalities. Further, in the latter very few cities employ contractors for cleaning, as nearly all of them get better and cheaper results with a permanent and trained force of officers and men, and by the free selection of the best tools and machines for the various kinds of work to be done.

It is pointed out that contract work requires supervision, which is difficult and expensive, and that the contractor will never do more than he is obliged to do under contract conditions, which in exceptional cases might make modifications desirable that it was impracticable to foresee and embody in the contract. Contract specifications can furthermore not measure or control the efficiency of labor in such matters as street cleaning, which is largely a matter of personal judgment. Such cleaning is too important for the welfare of the inhabitants to allow it to be placed in the hands of outside interest and profit-making. A municipality should have the liberty of so arranging the work of cleaning at every moment as it deems best for the general good. It has been found that the cleaning of asphalt streets is particularly more advantageous in the cities' own hands. Next in order come the macadam streets, and the least benefited parts of streets when cleaned by the public are the sidewalks.

A diagram relating to German cities up to 1,000,000 inhabitants shows these results, as well as can be done in figures. There are also given tables stating the areas required for each purpose of the department in the administration buildings, and the number of tools, wagons, and personnel required to do the work upon given areas.

There is given much good advice regarding details of administration, all of which indicates the superior efficiency and economy of permanent bodies, trained for their specific duties and rewarded accordingly.

The book closes with an Appendix containing Answers to Questions submitted to a large number of German cities, regarding the subject matter it was intended to discuss in the book and forming the basis upon which the conclusions therein have been reached.

If a translation of this book were available it should be in the street cleaning department of every city, for it contains more useful information than any other book on the subject that has appeared up to the present time.

HOUSING, HEALTH AND MORALS IN RICHMOND, VIRGINIA

ONE of the most interesting discussions at the National Municipal League meeting in Richmond, Virginia, last fall was that on housing, health and morals. It was opened by John Ihlder, field secretary of the National Housing Association, whose address was published in the January number of the REVIEW.[1] The chairman and the other speakers on the program were, with one exception—President S. C. Mitchel of the University of South Carolina—natives and residents of Richmond, who not only brought out a large amount of new information regarding living conditions in a southern city, but showed their northern visitors that the south is awakening to its social needs. This was particularly true of what Miss Elizabeth Cocke had to say on housing and morals in Richmond and of what Dr. Ernest E. Levy, Richmond's health officer, added in corroboration.

Mr. Ihlder brought out the economic value of sanitary housing and the lack of reliable information in American cities on such vital matters as birth and death rates and the physical effect of insanitary living conditions. Miss Cocke supplemented this by describing the effect of bad housing on the morals of the people, as she had seen it in the course of her work as a nurse.

Our local conditions in Richmond have, as yet, nothing which approaches the tenement. There are a few old houses occupied by, possibly, some half dozen families to the house, but though these show very bad conditions in room overcrowding, there are no conditions of lack of light and air, if the windows are opened to admit ventilation. In one instance I have found a bedroom, occupied presumably by seven people, in which there is no window at all; one door giving upon another room with two windows, and a second door upon the entry on the upper landing.

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[1] See vol. 1, page 54.

Among the comparatively small foreign population there is a very great deal of room overcrowding, but the most extensive of these conditions exist among the negroes. These appear to be the most squalid and least progressive, but this I believe to be largely due to the demoralizing effects of bad housing and surroundings which do not tend to any uplift.

Can children raised in Jail Bottom, whose only outlook is a mountain-like dump of rotting rags and rusty tin cans on the one side, and on the other a stream which is an open sewer, smelling to heaven from the filth which it carries along, or leaves here and there in slime upon its banks, have any but debasing ideas? Can parents inculcate high moral standards when across the street or down the block are houses of the "red-light" district? When a dry-closet blocks the one small window of the kitchen, can lack of decency be called to account? Is the world so small that there is no room left for the amenities of life? Are ground space and floor space of more value than cleanliness and health and morality?

It is certainly a fallacy that the poor do not want good housing. In a wonderful address, given last spring at the Child Welfare Conference, in Richmond, a negro speaker said in substance:

"We would use the bath tub as frequently and enjoy it as much as our white brother and sister, if we could afford to rent houses which have the bath tub in them. We do not prefer dilapidation and discomfort, nor being forced to live in districts where there is only depravity and low surroundings; but the better ones of us have too much self-respect to force ourselves on our white brothers, if they do not want us living along side of them."

All that Miss Cocke said was endorsed by the chairman, John Stewart Bryan, who as publisher of one of the most influential newspapers in the south, *The News Leader*, is in a position to know the facts. "It is an old story to any engaged in work of this sort," he declared, "that a person situated as the negro is in Richmond pays more taxes than the richest man in Richmond, because the taxes he pays take such a large part of his income and he gets so little in return. All that Miss Cocke says is true. They are segregated in Jackson ward, and under a new ordinance they are being still further segregated. That is radically wrong, it is economically wrong, and nothing in the world can change it but an awakening of public sentiment, and it ought to be awakened and it will be."

Dr. Walter S. McNiel, who had made a special study of housing betterment in Germany described the methods used by German cities, especially Frankfort, to provide wholesome homes for the people. "The problem is as big as the interstate commerce question in this country, because as the cities grow it will affect a greater and greater fraction of the total population. As to its solution, he believed that this could not be undertaken by the federal government, at least in the south. It can not be solved by small groups like charity and church organizations or by general benevolence or individuals. "I do not mean" he added, "that any scheme of reform should overlook those factors; they can and do help a great deal. But in the city government only do we find a government so local as to be thoroughly informed as to local conditions and so strong as to be able to combat them."

Dr. Levy, the last speaker, referring to Mr. Ihlder's address, declared that it is easily shown that the prevalence of typhoid is six times as great in a community not sewered as in one that is sewered, that there is a map in the Richmond health department showing that the fatal cases of measles and whooping cough are in general associated with unsanitary surroundings, and that the same is true of diarrhea. "But," he added, "whether this is caused by living in these houses, or whether it is because the people living in these houses are poor people and have poor food and weakened constitutions, I do not know. I think we have a vicious circle here. People live in poor houses because they are poor and they keep poor because they live in poor houses. You have got to break into that vicious circle."

"While I enjoyed Mr. Ihlder's paper very much," he continued, "I confess to a frank disappointment in that he did not suggest a remedy. We may not know what to do unless the specialists tell us, and if he did tell us we would not know what to do unless he showed us."

To this Mr. Ihlder responded that while he had no opportunity to see the hovels described by Miss Cocke he had seen some of the large houses and apartments on the best residence streets and that they showed the need for a remedy he would propose, the enactment and enforcement of a law regulating the percentage of lot area which may be occupied by buildings and requiring that every room shall have adequate light and ventilation. Some of these houses on the best streets occupy from 90 to nearly 100 per cent of the lot. They are built as if they would always, as at present, stand without neighbors, their windows looking out over adjoining property. When the owner of this adjoining property builds the greater part of their rooms will be dark and airless. Even private residences are built closer together than should be permitted in the erection of detached houses.

This comment aroused a number of the Richmond people present who emphatically endorsed it.

New York. JOHN IHLDER.[1]

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[1] Field Secretary National Housing Association.

GENERAL PLANNING BOARD FOR METROPOLITAN BOSTON

NOWHERE else in the world does there exist a political situation parallel to that of Metropolitan Boston. Here are thirty-eight towns and cities as intimately related in everything that concerns daily life as the wards of an American city, but with no power or means, barring water supply, sewage disposal, and parks, of controlling, constructing, or improving public works or of taking public action that is for the promotion of the business, health, safety or convenience of the metropolitan district as a whole. Throughout all parts of the district, among all classes of the population, there is now a deep-seated conviction that the conditions under which the people are working and living, are, in many respects, unsatisfactory; that in part, at least, these conditions are due to serious gaps or deficiencies in the present form of the organization of the district, and that it would be of immense and direct benefit to the district as a whole and, indirectly to the entire commonwealth, if an acceptable and practical method could be brought forth for remedying existing evils.

The Metropolitan plan commission appointed in June, 1911, by Governor Foss of Massachusetts to investigate the feasibility of a plan for coördinating civic development in the thirty-eight independent towns and cities that comprise the Boston metropolitan district, has recently presented its report to the legislature.

The commission began its work by attempting to visualize the existing situation and its cost, to discover the principal causes that have brought it about and to outline what seemed to it an available remedy. The commission endeavored at the outset to enquire into the cost of a lack of intelligent, systematic planning in the past. The purpose of its inquiry was not to fix responsibility or blame upon any political official or any government, but to point out the inherent waste and weakness of the present system from which public officials and governments have no escape; and then to make a sound business argument for the prompt adoption of a better method for the future.

No one questions the tremendous loss to Boston, a loss which extends far beyond its boundaries, of a congested business center. Washington Street, a main thoroughfare, on which the largest retail stores are located, has a roadway which reaches its greatest width at 40 feet and in some places is as narrow as 26 feet. This roadway carries two lines of street cars and an immense volume of business teaming. The sidewalks are only from 7 to 10 feet in width. The situation with regard to Washington Street is not exceptional among Boston's retail business streets. Yet the city of Boston has spent within the last fifty or sixty years over $40,000,000 in street widening and street straightening.

No one questions the inconvenience and loss in time and money to Metropolitan Boston of a loose, disjointed system of transportation. To use the word system to describe it is a courtesy. How costly, day after day, is the lack of a connection with the South Station, the principal railroad terminal, and of other points of almost equal importance. The saving and gain from a coördination of all transportation facilities within the district would be literally incalculable.

No one who knows the conditions questions the handicap to business resulting from the lack of suitable traffic thoroughfares. A local merchant has estimated that there is an average loss in Boston of from two to three hours a day on all vehicles, due to inadequate street facilities, equal, according to his estimate, to $100,000 a year in hauling.

Very few persons now question the loss to Massachusetts, in fact to all New England, from the failure to plan ahead for railway and dock development. The work of the recently appointed dock board will be more costly because belated. Moreover, it will not yield the largest possible returns unless its work is organically planned to connect with those other related features of waterfront development, such as internal transportation, traffic highways, sites for industries, and suitable homes for workmen, all of which are or ought to be inseparable from a scheme of large waterfront improvements. This is a hard fact, clearly demonstrated by the experience of European cities.

No one who knows the facts can fail to be aroused by the unsatisfactory housing conditions in Greater Boston and more alarming still are the present tendencies. In the most congested sections of Boston, not single blocks, but in areas of a hundred acres or more, there is a density of 500 persons to the acre. More than half of these people live under conditions where they sleep in rooms with less than 400 cubic feet of air space per capita. Thus they are living under conditions below the lowest standards fixed as the minimum by any city in the United States or Europe which has undertaken to establish a minimum. But this is not the most disturbing feature of the housing situation. It is the unlimited extension of these worst conditions. Under the present organization of the district, the worst conditions of the city of Boston may be repeated not only in any part of Boston, but practically in any part of the Metropolitan district. The same economic causes that made it natural and profitable to create these conditions where they now exist, will make it natural and profitable to extend them to new areas. The efforts of single towns and cities to control and improve housing are likely to be ineffective.

This wasteful policy is not yet at an end. Many large improvements are now being made or contemplated. The district is in a period of inevitable reconstruction, due to growth, expansion, and new ideals. Highways, subways, elevated railways, and bridges are being planned and constructed to connect the towns and cities with one another. At last it seems as if the North and South Stations were to be connected; and many other improvements of metropolitan character are actually under way or assured. Are they to be skilfully planned in relation to one another, or are they to be developed piecemeal one at a time? Will they be based upon a careful survey of future needs and a farsighted plan, or are they to serve only the immediate need, involving reconstruction and consequent waste in the future? From its studies, the commission became convinced that all metropolitan improvements now being made in the district, except those under metropolitan authorities or with the metropolitan viewpoint, were characterized by the same sort of loss and penalty, because no comprehensive plan exists, no agency for treating the district as a unit.

The present situation in the metropolitan Boston district is admirably illustrated by an allegory of metroplitan planning written by one member[1] of the commission and included in the commission's report. It reads as follows:

> Once upon a time 38 families agreed to build a house. They had enough land, considerable borrowing capacity and unlimited self confidence. Each family wanted to build its own part of the house exactly as it pleased. The cellar and the roof were admitted to be common to all, and after some discussion they decided to go shares on these parts of the building and have a builder and a building committee to look after them. Then they started to draw their plans. And the Brooklines planned an elegant suite with tiled baths, French windows, open fireplaces and white marble exterior. The Miltons schemed a cosy flat with English half timbered work outside and leaded windows, the Bostons laid out three stories of rooms, 26 in all, the lower story fireproof, the upper two warranted to burn in any weather. The Nahants wanted sleeping porches and white stucco, the Somervilles chose concrete blocks, the Wakefields stained shingles and the Winchesters a colonial effect in white clapboards. The differences did not stop with the outside, for the Quincys stood for 7-foot studding while the Reveres on the same floor wanted 12. The Lynns were content with a narrow entry, while the Swampscotts beyond them wanted a wide one, and everybody quarreled over the placing of the stairs. The families on the ground floor didn't need stairs and didn't want to pay for any. The top story families didn't care to deaden their floors, and most of the plumbing pipes had to run through a neighbor's best rooms and could be *heard* if not seen. When the plans were completed, the heads of families held an interesting meeting at which each proclaimed his own needs and intentions to be carried out regardless, or else he and his would go on living in a back street in an inconvenient ugly house all by themselves. At last some one said, "Let us call in an architect and show him our plans. I don't suppose he can give every one of us exactly what we are asking for. Maybe some of our climbers will have to comfort themselves with cut-glass door knobs and silk rugs just for their own use, but if he knows his business he will give us the right kind of entries and

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[1] J. R. Coolidge, Jr.

halls and stairs and lifts, and will make the house look better, sell better and cost less than our brilliant but inharmonious efforts. If we don't like his plans we can make him show others till we get what we want—within reason. Shall we do it?" And the 38 families saw the light and employed the expert and he builded better than they knew.

In its report the metropolitan plan commission recommends that a permanent metropolitan planning board be appointed, three members by the governor of the state and two by the mayor of Boston. The chairman of the board, who is to be appointed by the governor, to receive a salary of $10,000 a year and the other members $1000 a year each. The board so constituted, is to collect the data for a metropolitan plan through a systematic consultation with all the local authorities, using existing surveys and making additional surveys of its own. The board is to work out and publish from time to time a comprehensive plan for the metropolitan district, setting forth its present and probable future condition as regards main thoroughfares, transportation lines and facilities of every sort, properly coördinated. It would study questions of metropolitan scope that do not fall within the province of any existing agency, such as the prevention and relief of congestion both of population and of traffic, the better control of fire hazard, the better distribution of areas and of buildings for the several purposes of residence, manufacturing, trade, and transportation, the better coördination of public transportation facilities, and the best methods of financing and assessing the cost of public improvements.

More important than any power over single subjects would be the power of the proposed board to consider the relation of one subject to another, to coördinate matters that ought clearly to be coördinated, to recognize again and again the unity of the district in many matters. Such a planning board would have the knowledge and the power, for example, to consider the relation of traffic highways and traffic open spaces to transportation, of transportation to parks and playgrounds, of parks and playgrounds to the homes of the people, of the homes of the people to manufacturing districts, of manufacturing districts to transportation, and on and on, through that unending relationship and inter-relationship which stamps the character of modern life, and on the profitable and skilful provision for which depends, in many instances, the success or failure of a public improvement and the return or dividend on a public investment.

The planning board would have power to examine all plans by public authorities before final steps toward execution were actually taken, expressing approval or disapproval of such plans, with its reasons for the same, and seeking to effect coördination of the plans. In case a plan by a local authority conflicted with larger plans for the whole district, it should have power to suspend the execution of such a plan for not more than one year in order to give opportunity for its revision and possible advantageous conformity with the metropolitan plans. Except for this suspensive veto, the legislation proposed would in no way abridge or affect the powers of existing authorities. The metropolitan planning board would not be an executive board, for the execution of the work shown upon its plans would rest, as it does now, with the state, county, or local authority.

The approval of the metropolitan planning board and the execution of an approved metropolitan work would involve classification of the work by the board either as an ordinary or an extraordinary metropolitan improvement. The effect of such classification would be to have the work financed outside of the debt limit of the cities and towns of the district by the loan of the state's credit, and with the ultimate contribution by the state of 10 per cent of the entire cost. The participation of the commonwealth, however, would be limited to $500,000 in any one year. Of the remaining 90 per cent, 65 per cent for ordinary improvements and any proportion up to 65 per cent for extraordinary improvements would be paid by the localities in which the improvements were actually made, and 25 per cent or more by the remaining cities and towns of the metropolitan district. A special commission appointed by the supreme judicial court would apportion from time to time the several liabilities to be paid by the cities and towns of the district, which would be in accordance with the benefit to the cities assessed, taking due account also of population and valuation.

In concluding its report, the metropolitan plan commission expressed the conviction, based upon its investigations, that metropolitan planning would benefit the district in at least three ways. In the first place, it would reduce the cost of living by planning metropolitan works so that they would be more enduring, promoting and not hindering the transaction of business; also by improving or abolishing conditions which make so many citizens a burden, rather than a benefit to themselves and to the community. Secondly, metropolitan planning would benefit the district by advancing through conscious public action the commercial and industrial prosperity of the thirty-eight towns and cities in the district, in which prosperity the entire commonwealth would share. Thirdly, better planning would result in a coördinating of public functions so that they would be more efficient in their service to the community. The theory of the proposed legislation is to evolve a constructive, persuasive, and voluntary system of metropolitan coöperation to make improvements that are not now sufficiently provided for, that will be increasingly more difficult and expensive the longer they are postponed.

JOHN NOLEN.[1]

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[1] Mr. Nolen, of Cambridge, Massachusetts, is a member of the Metropolitan plan commission, the work of which he describes. He is the author of a series of reports on city plans and planning, which have attained a high place in the literature of this subject and is also the editor of Repton's *Art of Landscape Architecture*.

THE BUSINESS SIDE OF CITY PLANNING[1]

THIS sounds most disagreeable. Business seems to suggest the sordid, unpleasant side of life, while art implies all that is charming, sweet and good. Now, city-planning is a serious affair. Life is not all play—and not all work, but a judicious combination of both. So our cities must provide for the workshop and the business street as well as for the park and playground. The demand that we make for beauty is reasonable and proper and it can be secured without neglecting commercial considerations. In fact the beauty that we seek is based on the principle of increasing the efficiency of the business world. A city-plan is a program for the development of the city and it simply means the exercise of prudence and foresight such as would be necessary to secure the success of any organization. A natural desire for the increasing dignity and splendor of our cities is to be encouraged and fostered, but the beauty of the modern city must be founded upon industrial advancement and upon the increase in health and consequent happiness of the citizens.

The principles of city-planning are rapidly becoming better known and it is fast taking the position of an exact science. But science alone is not enough, we need art, too. To secure supreme results the city-planner must have a constructive imagination which will not ignore facts, humanity and common sense, but which will in its higher flights lead us to splendors unthought of today.

The beauty of the Place de la Concorde always impresses us whenever we visit Paris. We enjoy the fountains splashing in the sunlight, the setting of the central obelisk, and the monumental aspect of this great square placed at the intersection of important thoroughfares, each of a different character. But we must remember that it is planned so that the traffic is admirably distributed, and that it perfectly fits its purpose of providing the best possible circulation for innumerable vehicles that cross it in every direction.

Small parks and playgrounds that are placed in the congested tenement districts bring light and air, flowers, grass and trees to the dwellers in the slums. The old houses facing the park inevitably disappear and are replaced by modern structures—so the influence of the open space spreads on all sides producing an astonishing decrease in crime and disease and a proportionate increase in public welfare. Public buildings harmoniously grouped make fine architectural compositions and with their terraces and frame of trees and lawn become the pride of the city, but the fact of grouping them in proper relation to each other results in a marked economy of time and effort for the employees and citizens having business in the various departments.

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[1] A condensation of an address before the American Civic Association, at its annual meeting in Washington, December, 1911.

The proposed water front improvements that are so necessary for many cities would secure water-side parks, recreation grounds, picturesque views of the river, harbor, or bay, and they would also result in greater facilities for the shipping and its independent traffic. This is illustrated by the Chelsea improvement in New York, where a broad, dignified thoroughfare now takes the place of the former crowded-ill-kept street. The water front of Algiers is another example. The graded roads leading from the water level to the upper street level pass in front of rows of warehouses with arched doorways until they reach a terrace upon which excellent buildings are ranged. The river front on Budapest is an instance of admirable water front treatment. Every facility is provided for the shipping, the warehouses, and the trolley cars are taken care of, and above this there is an avenue lined with trees and bordered by buildings of great architectural dignity. Both business efficiency and beauty are thus secured and each supplements the other.

This avenue facing the Danube is a delight to the soul—and to the body. It is thoroughly appreciated by the citizens who flock there in the afternoon and evening, sit at small tables in front of the hotels and cafés, listen to the music, and enjoy the splendid panorama spread before them. Commerce is active and the river is full of craft, boats of all sorts and sizes passing by, darting here and there, and crowding the wharves. Business efficiency is secured and assisted in every way, while the beauty of the river front is jealously guarded.

We may learn much from Budapest. This enterprising city decided some years ago to remit the taxes on buildings of a certain degree of excellence in order to encourage better architecture. The experiment worked so well that they have now repeated it, and in order to secure the advantages of the new law permitting a thirty-year remission of taxes, buildings are being erected all over the town with an activity that is truly American. Unlike us, however, they cheerfully submit to municipal regulations which compel the buildings to conform in style and which regulate their height. The result is a series of streets and parkways which are singularly harmonious and beautiful. It is to be noted that Budapest is a commerical city and is extremely prosperous.

A good system of streets and circulation of traffic is a most important factor in a city's prosperity. The direction, width and treatment of thoroughfares need careful consideration, for all streets must not be equally wide. Trees are appropriate in one case and not in another. We want what we want where we want it. The character of the street and its traffic must determine its treatment.

Now, the great extravagance of our cities does not lie in lavish expenditures for public buildings, monuments and other improvements, but in the improvident way in which the work is performed. We resort to temporary makeshifts and shirk the real problem. New York is the best known example of a great city with a small plan—a plan that hampers and restricts it. It not only endures this initial mistake, but suffers from the manner in which municipal works are carried on.

We know—we always knew—that galleries under the streets were required for the various underground services, such as gas, water, steam pipes, etc., etc. But on account of the initial cost of construction we have submitted to a constant upheaval of the streets—as repairs are continual and everlasting. Who doubts that the original cost of pipe galleries have been far exceeded by the cost of these diggings and repaving? The traffic has been grievously obstructed, business seriously injured and the result of all this annoyance and loss is the perpetuation of an unsatisfactory system! The old pavements were patched and repatched long after such repairs were advisable. Now it is a pleasure to know that the president of the borough of Manhattan, George McAneny, takes a sensible view of all this and insists upon doing all city work in a thorough, workmanlike manner. And this is good business.

Here in America we ask ourselves if we can afford city-planning. If our prosperity is to continue we *must* afford it. It is the best investment that we can make. But, when we indulge in city-planning let us do it sanely and reasonably. A civic center need not be created in the most expensive portion of the town. In Cleveland, for instance, we selected for the great civic center that is being constructed there, a piece of land that had been entirely neglected. In Rochester, Mr. Olmsted and I selected the site for the civic center and the new city hall with all regard to economy, and the portion of Main Street where land values were the lowest was the part that we selected, and we believe that the selection has met with general approval.

Naturally, the improvement of a neglected portion of a city greatly enhances the value of the surrounding property, and as this value increases the taxes increase and so the improvement becomes an asset to the city in actual money value, by degrees paying for itself.

England has solved the question by what is called the law of "excess condemnation." In New York State a constitutional amendment was suggested making this possible, but its advantages were not understood and the amendment was defeated at the last election. Let me give you an illustration of how it works in London. It was found that communication between Holborn and the Strand was difficult. These two thoroughfares were separated by a tangle of streets and by most undesirable property. Accordingly, a new avenue was planned and it was found that cutting through this network of streets left irregular shaped pieces of property. Some were little triangles, others long slices, many of them unfitted for building purposes. Accordingly, the city of London not only acquired the property necessary for the new street, but also bought a strip 100 feet wide on each side of it. These bordering strips were then cut into pieces of property suitable for building. The value of all this property when it was bought was low, the neighborhood was undesirable. The new avenue which the city created entirely changed the character of the neighborhood and these building lots, bordering the King's Way, as the new street is called, became very valuable indeed.

The city then sold these building lots at the market price with the result that this great improvement is paying for itself, the city, as a city, making the legitimate profit which resulted from the new values that it, itself, had created. When I was in London I asked the architect of the London county council, whether he had found these calculations correct and if the scheme was working out as he had expected. He assured me that it was entirely successful and that London would do it again.

This is not a new thing over there. As far back as 1861 the Garrick Street improvement, which was operated on the same principles, succeeded in paying 72 per cent of the cost of the construction, and in 1876, when Northumberland Avenue was constructed, it resulted in a profit of $600,000.

I think that we may call this the "business side of city-planning." There is no reason why we should not have laws making this possible, in fact in our cities where the value of property is enormous it seems the only way by which we can make the changes that are now absolutely necessary on account of the growing increase of population and the congestion of traffic.

There is another bit of business to which I should like to refer. I believe that civic art pays; a great gallery of pictures, or a statue by Saint Gaudens, a fine civic center, a beautiful park, is a commercial asset to any city. Many cities in Italy—Venice, for instance—are living on their beauty. Writers extol their loveliness and the public flocks to do them honor. Such publicity first made the little walled town of Chester famous at a time when it was known to only a few of the initiated who fled from Liverpool to enjoy its quaint streets and restful atmosphere. Then Mr. Howells made himself its historian, acclaiming its peculiar charm, and incidentally crowded its inns and shops and brought an unexpected prosperity to its doors. The money brought by the tourist is not to be despised. Possibly, you have not stopped to consider that the tide of travel is changing. It is not all eastward; it is now very generally westward.

That little red book, *Baedeker,* has appeared among us and there is now published an edition for the United States. This indicates the tremendous number of travelers that come here, and where do they go? Naturally, to the beautiful, not to the ugly, squalid city. A star in *Baedeker* is indeed a commercial asset.

These are a few instances taken at random which indicate that the requirements of beauty and business may both be met by a good city-plan:

City-planning does not mean the creation of a civic center and grouping public buildings;

It does not mean the arrangement of streets and boulevards nor perfecting the system of circulation and traffic;

It does not mean tree planting, the location of fountains and statues, nor the creation of great vistas;

It does not mean the formation of a park system with its connecting parkways and small city squares;

It does not mean the treatment of the water-front, nor the solution of the railway problem with its arches, tunnels and terminals;

It does not mean suburban development, nor the creation of garden cities;

It does not mean the location of school houses or playgrounds, either for children or grown-ups;

It does not mean the method of bonding the cost of the improvements—the law of excess condemnation—the legislation required.

It means *all* of them considered together, the business side of city-planning not being neglected, and I believe the most practical result to be attained is not the beauty of the city, but the consequent elevation of the standard of citizenship.

Arnold W. Brunner.[1]

ECONOMY AND EFFICIENCY IN HEALTH ADMINISTRATION WORK

Some phase of municipal health and sanitation has been presented at each meeting of the National Municipal League for a number of years past, but except on the first of these occasions (the Providence meeting of 1907) there has been but little discussion. At the Richmond meeting, in November, 1911, a paper entitled "Economy and Efficiency in Health Administration Work" was presented by Mr. Selskar M. Gunn, assistant professor of sanitary biology and public health in the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Boston, Mass. A lengthy discussion followed, the essence of which is presented in the following pages.

Professor Gunn's paper was printed in the Review[2] for January. The main points brought out by Professor Gunn in his paper are however here summarized:

No satisfactory statement of what constitutes economy and efficiency in health administration work is possible until the true functions of a health department have been defined. No such definition has yet been framed although there has been progress toward it. This process has consisted largely in an agreement that health departments should be relieved from such work as garbage disposal, plumbing inspection, and other municipal and private cleansing, and that they should also be relieved from hospital administration and the care of the poor; all to the end that they may have more time for the really essential health-protective work, the aim of which is the decrease of preventable sickness and the prolongation of life.

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[1] Arnold W. Brunner of New York is an architect of high standing, a member of the board of supervision for public buildings and grounds in Cleveland, a member of similar commissions in other cities and of the art commission of New York.

[2] See vol. 1, page 49.

The present lack of knowledge, or perhaps the author might more truly have said, lack of comprehension, of the comparative importance of various branches of health-protective work results in a great variation in the stress laid upon each by different health departments and in much over-emphasis of certain branches, with as notable neglect of others.

The need of better training for health officers and of training as a prerequisite for employment in such positions was dwelt upon. Reference was made to the difficulty of demonstrating the real value of health-protective work. The improvement of the milk supply at Richmond, Virginia, under the administration of Dr. E. C. Levy, chief health officer, was cited as an illustration of valuable work. The need of reform in accounting methods of health departments was mentioned and reference was made to a plan for standardization which has been undertaken by the Association of Massachusetts Boards of Health. Finally, the author spoke of the necessity of freedom from politics as an essential to economical and efficient health administration and the necessity of putting this work "in the hands of trained sanitarians who shall understand the relative importance of the different lines of endeavor and who will then be able to disburse an adequate appropriation in such manner that the community will receive the maximum protection at the lowest possible cost."

The formal discussion of Professor Gunn's paper was opened by Dr. E. C. Levy, of Richmond, and M. N. Baker, who were followed by a number of other speakers.

Dr. Levy agreed with Professor Gunn's statement that standardization in public health work has not yet been reached. He was of the opinion that economy in health work cannot be measured in the same way as economy in other municipal activities, since health work has to do with human lives, which cannot be compared with miles of water mains or blocks of street pavement. Moreover, lives differ enormously in value, both as to age and usefulness regardless of age. "A community which can prove that it has saved the life of one citizen of eminence," Dr. Levy said, "certainly would prove that it had, by that act alone, justified every cent it had spent or could possibly spend in a year on its health department."

Elsewhere[1] Dr. Levy stated that he had shown that during the year 1910 the health department of Richmond had saved lives from death by typhoid fever conservatively valued at a total of $385,000, or ten times the expenditures of the health department for all purposes during the year.

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[1] In a pamphlet reviewing typhoid fever at Richmond, Virginia.

By way of forcible illustration of the necessity which sometimes arises for apparent extravagance in life saving, Dr. Levy told how a nurse used a costly lace curtain to extinguish the burning clothing of an infant which had caught fire from a spark from an unprotected open grate. There was here no question of trying to economize by saving the curtain rather than the child, but both could have been saved at comparatively little expense and with no risk whatever by providing the proper fender for the fireplace. The moral of this story as applied to health protective work is obvious.

Finally Dr. Levy remarked that while the standardization of public health work in many directions is "a splendid thing" yet public health expenditures cannot be and should not be too closely standardized. For instance, typhoid fever in Richmond, as in other cities of the south, prevails to a marked degree, while scarlet fever is almost a negligible disease, there having been not more than three deaths from scarlet fever in Richmond in any one year since 1888, while there were only four deaths in the last five years (present population 129,000). The relative prevalence of the two diseases in northern cities is generally reversed, so it would be utterly misleading to compare the money expended or the measures carried out to combat either one of these diseases in Richmond and in a northern city of equal size.

Dr. Levy was followed by M. N. Baker who remarked that the first essential to efficiency is to determine what is what in public health work. However much public health work may broaden out in the future, for the present it seems necessary to concentrate efforts in a few specific and unquestionable directions. The first and most important of these in the interests of efficiency is not the collection of garbage or other branches of municipal cleansing, as so many people think, but rather the control of communicable diseases. Efficient control can only be had by going to the source which, in case of communicable diseases, is the individual sufferer.

The efficiency of public health work cannot be judged without agreement upon some measure or standard. From the dollars and cents point of view, a rational classification of health board expenditures is essential to determine whether the appropriations available are distributed in accordance with the relative importance of the different classes of work undertaken and whether the results obtained are commensurate with the corresponding expense. One of the greatest difficulties encountered in attempts to measure efficiency in health and other municipal departments arises in taking account of the quality as well as the quantity of the work done. This, as Dr. Levy suggests, is particularly difficult where human lives are involved.

There is reason for congratulation in the fact, as stated by Professor Gunn, that a committee of the Massachusetts Association of Boards of Health has undertaken the formulation of a scheme for the annual report of local boards of health and that the scheme will include suggestions for a uniform statement of health board expenditures. There has been some measure of coöperation between the committee named and the League committee on municipal health and sanitation and it is hoped that the work of both committees will be brought into line with the scheme of financial statistics of cities formulated by the bureau of the census.

Another essential of health board efficiency, as already suggested by Professor Gunn, is the right sort of men as health officers. The question is how and where to get trained men for the work. Our technical schools are turning out more engineers than the country can absorb but until recently no institution in the country and even yet only a few have offered training designed specifically to meet the needs of the health officer. The training of even the best medical schools is not in the direction of public health work. Both the schooling and the daily practice of the physician fit him to deal with the individual rather than with the masses of humanity which must be dealt with in public health work.

We are not, however, so badly off as might be thought, because some of the best of our technical schools, through their courses in sanitary engineering and in sanitary biology and chemistry are turning out men who are much better qualified to take up the work of the health officer than are the graduates of the medical schools. Already a number of cities are employing engineers as health officers. One reason for doing this is that it is difficult to induce a physician to devote his whole time to public health work, especially in the smaller places. The result is that where doctors are employed we find either a poor weakling of the medical profession who has been given his office out of pity or political favor or else an ambitious young man who is taking up the work while trying to build up a medical reputation and is more interested in the latter than in his work as health officer—that is, he is trying to serve two masters, a thing which has never yet been brought to a successful issue.

Dr. Geier, of Cincinnati, when the subject was thrown open for general discussion, took issue with Mr. Baker. While he agreed that a large city has need of "a sanitarian or engineer" he believed that considering "the greatest good of the greatest number, it is necessary to go to the medical profession to fill the position of health officer in the average community." Dr. Geier maintained that the question is not one of the ability of health officers to handle health board work, but the failure of communities to recognize the importance of health department administration and the need of putting the best available physician into it.

The tremendous factor that good health administration might be made in awakening the people to the possibilities of good, clean municipal government was dwelt upon by Dr. Geier. By way of illustration, the recent experience of Cincinnati since the health department was taken out of politics was cited in some detail. There was no difficulty in getting good men as members of the board of health when they were sure that efficiency was the only criterion of service. The local milk supply has since been improved and the tuberculosis rate reduced.

The Rev. G. W. Lay, of Raleigh, remarked that "efficiency in sanitation is found where things do not happen" and illustrated the paradox by telling the story of the boy who explained how pins have saved the lives of thousands of people—by not swallowing them.

Dr. Flannagan, a member of the Viriginia State Board of Health, said that lumping together as a title "Municipal Finances and Health" is like keeping such federal health work as is done in this country under the Treasury Department. When the two subjects are separated and due prominence is given to public health work, a better appreciation of the latter by the general public may be expected. Only a few of the cities of Virginia have health departments worthy of the name and only a few have full time health officers. The same is true of other states. Educational campaigns are necessary. Among agencies which are taking a hand to this end Dr. Flannagan mentioned the national Y. M. C. A. and various life insurance companies.

Elliot Hunt Pendleton, of Cincinnati, stated that the people must be taught the money value of public health work. Hereafter those who are thinking of locating industries in a given city are going to ask whether the city has the best schools, pure water, good sewage disposal, and an efficient health board. The city lacking these things will be passed by.

Oliver McClintock, of Pittsburgh, related an incident which occurred in Pittsburgh after the Pittsburgh Survey. One of the bad features that was mentioned in the report of the Survy was "Painter's Row," a number of houses owned by the United States Steel Corporation, in which the people were packed like sardines, with an inadequate water supply and no sewers. Legislation, Mr. McClintock stated, prevented the discharge of sewage into the Ohio River and as there was no other place to empty sewage, no sewers were built. The corporation thought it could not make the people move out of the houses because there was no place to which they could go. A few months after the report came out, however, the houses were levelled to the ground. This, the speaker thought, illustrated the value of publicity in bringing influence to bear on corporations.

Richard H. Dana, of Cambridge, Mass., wished to know what Mr. Baker and Dr. Levy thought of the following plan for selecting health board experts for cities: Make up a committee composed say of Professor

Gunn, Professor William T. Sedgwick, and the chief executive of the state board of health, in a state like Massachusetts, and have it pass in review the education, training and accomplishments of candidates, examine the candidates, and report to those charged with making appointments the names of the three candidates standing highest. In reply, Mr. Baker stated he thought such a plan would work well. He remarked further that for years past no person could be appointed as sanitary inspector or health officer of a New Jersey municipality who has not passed an examination before a commission appointed by the state board of health.

Dr. Levy replied to Mr. Dana's question that the plan would be impracticable in Richmond because the city charter requires that all city officials shall be residents and taxpayers—a provision which he declared to be absurd. A further difficulty at Richmond is that, owing to lack of trained men for physicians in the health department, it is necessary to employ untrained men and train them to their work. The salary is a fixed one, so that a man gets more than he is worth when he begins and less after he has been trained. Consequently, the trained men accept positions elsewhere after they become valuable.

Lieutenant Shaw, of Norfolk, Virginia, said that the charter provisions of that city were similar to those just mentioned by Dr. Levy. The Norfolk charter provides that all appointments shall be made for fitness but with restriction of appointments to residents. With this restriction it is impossible to select sanitary or any other officials on the basis of fitness.

The discussion closed with a statement by Mr. Dana that while ordinary city employees, such as street sweepers, must be residents of the city which they serve, experts may be appointed from outside the city.

Condensed by MR. M. N. BAKER.[1]

CHICAGO CITY CLUB OPENING

THE new building of the Chicago City Club, in the heart of the downtown loop district, was opened with appropriate and most significant ceremonies the second week in January.

A series of house-warming programs were carried out on six nights from January 8 to 14. Different characteristic groups were the guests of the club on these nights. The first occasion was "Members' Night" at which time a large portion of the membership of 1600, to which the club has grown in the past year, was present and the successive presidents of the club gave reminiscences of its history from its inception and organization on December 5, 1903, when it met over Vogelsang's restaurant, down to the realization of the club's hope to have a dignified and commodious home on its present site.

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[1] M. N. Baker is editor of *Engineering News*, New York City; president of the board of health of Montclair, N. J.; and chairman of the National Municipal League committee on municipal health and sanitation.

Towner K. Webster, its second president, described the first efforts of the club along civic lines, how Colonel Piper was imported to rejuvenate the police force introducing as he did, a new word in the Chicago dictionary, "piperizing" the police. Dr. Favill, the present incumbent of the office outlined the tedious steps that were necessary to create the present structure, and the policy which is now dominating its active work. He considered the policy of maintaining membership dues at $20 a piece (exclusive of initiation fee of $10 beginning February 1) as a most interesting experiment, in view of the high cost of maintenance in so central a location, and with such a superb equipment. He said it could be done however, by keeping to the same simplicity which dominated the equipment and building, a simplicity that through the efforts of Pond and Pond, the architects, has given us beautiful proportions in the building, and the very best obtainable materials, but has avoided every note of luxury or extravagance. He felt it important that the dues should be maintained at this low figure to make it possible for the young, active, public-spirited men of Chicago, who could not afford large dues, to work together for civic betterment at this club center. Appropriate remarks were made by the architect, Irving K. Pond, the president of the American Institute of Architects and by Judge Julian W. Mack, of the commerce court, one of the founders of the club.

The second night, Tuesday, found the rooms filled with officials of the city, county and state government. The leading speakers were Governor Deneen of Illinois and Governor McGovern of Wisconsin. The former reviewed the activity of the city government and brought out the designedly impossible procedure of the state legislature: The smothering of bills in committees, and the glut of measures passed at the last moment requiring the assistance on his part of numerous lawyers to assist him in examining them. He dilated upon this as a premeditated plan for preventing necessary good legislation. Governor McGovern's address was a most thoughtful survey of the progress in Wisconsin, of the economic and social philosophy underlying the state governmental achievements.

The civic organizations on Wednesday night, were represented on the program by Miss Jane Addams and Mrs. Emmons Blaine.

"Education night" in charge of a committee presided over by Dr. Henry Legler, the librarian of the public library, called out the address of Mrs. Ella Flagg Young, superintendent of Chicago public schools.

One of the most unique of the week's programs, was "Nationalities' Night" on Friday. Some six different nationalities of Chicago, German, Bohemian, Polish, Italian, Scandinavian and the Irish, besides the American, were on the program, the presiding officer having native Indian-American blood. Charles R. Crane was to have presided on this occasion, but the death of his father, R. T. Crane, Sr., prevented this. The interplay of national pride as it flowed from the lips of the speakers, now in tones of eloquence and now in jest, was hugely enjoyed by the audience. It was remarked that the speakers were in every case the second generation of immigrants and that they spoke and appeared as thoroughly American as the most-dyed-in-the-wool Yankee. The program was very interesting and concluded by national folk songs and dances performed in costume. In the middle of the club house floor, space was made for the dances of the Italian tarantella, the German folk dance, for Swiss mountain songs and for Swedish dances, all in costume. Mrs. Smulski, the talented wife of the state treasurer of Illinois, gave delightful songs in native Polish.

"Labor Night," which concluded the week, had been carefully planned by the committee in charge of Robert F. Hoxie, professor at the University of Chicago. The speakers included representatives from the socialistic and trade union groups and the purpose of the evening was to bring about closer coöperation between the more or less warring factions. It was at least partially successful. The particular effort was to bring out the need of the organizations of industries as in England, rather than on the narrower lines prevailing in America. It was pointedly mentioned that the City Club building erected throughout by union labor, was nevertheless, delayed some three months owing to jurisdictional fights within the unions themselves. The City Club plans to have a good representation in its membership of all these groups and thus hopes to give them as free opportunity for getting together socially, as it does the government officials, private reformers and any other groups actuated by a desire to better civic conditions.

The club building was erected and furnished at a cost of about $200,000. It is six stories in height, although the second and third stories are double height in the front part of the building to provide for the large lounge room on the second floor and the large main dining room on the third floor. The architects have adopted a combination of the free Renaissance with Gothic suggestions and, as Mr. Pond stated, it gave him his first opportunity for carrying out an artistic idea he has long had in mine in decorative treatment. He had introduced at regular intervals, a plain square block, in colors, which interrupts the smooth flow of the adjacent plastic border outline. This he said had been introduced on the outside of the building and its interior decoration to represent the thought that all progress must meet obstacles, as has the City Club's activity, which temporarily impede the honored movement, but which nevertheless strengthen and beautify the character subjectively.

The main offices of the building are on the fourth floor where is also the library and the headquarters of the civic secretary, George E. Hooker, to whom in the program a large share of the credit has been ascribed for the successful development of the club. The upper two floors contain the committee dining rooms and a grill room.

All necessary appointments, such as billiard rooms, storage rooms, waiting rooms, ladies' reception rooms, kitchens and serving rooms are conveniently arranged. The top floor accommodates at present, the offices of the Elizabeth McCormick Foundation devoted to infant welfare; Sherman C. Kingsley director; and the Chicago bureau of public efficiency which grew out of the initiative of members of the City Club; George C. Sikes, former secretary of the harbor commission, is secretary of the new bureau.

A civic exhibit installed on the three upper floors was one of the prominent features of the occasion. This was prepared by twenty-two civic committees and represented, graphically, the problems in which they are at present concerned. The exhibits were prepared under the direction of the civic exhibit committee of which Edward L. Burchard was chairman. The exhibits were grouped under the headings of THE CITY-PHYSICAL, including city-planning, municipal art, streets, traffic, harbor, lighting and telephone, shown mostly on the fourth floor; THE CITY-CIVIL, including elections, civil service, public safety, shown on the fifth floor; THE CITY-SOCIAL, including charities, health, burial cost, reduction of noise, labor and housing, shown mainly on the fifth floor and some general exhibits on city finances, municipal publicity and statistics shown mainly on the sixth floor. There were also several exhibits from the Cleveland chamber of commerce, from the Milwaukee budget exhibit and from the United States census that were shown in a monographic form. The building was kept open to visitors for two weeks after the opening week and the efforts of the club officers resulted in bringing several thousands of people to the building, not only school teachers and university men and women, but people from the foreign colonies and from many private and public civic and social organizations. It is estimated that 4000 people saw the exhibit.

Chicago. EDWARD L. BURCHARD.

CHILD WELFARE EXHIBITS

NEARLY a million people attended the three great child welfare exhibits held last year in New York, Chicago and Kansas City: 300,000 in New York, 419,000 in Chicago, 96,000 in Kansas City. According to the statement of Miss Jane Addams, not since the great world's fair at Chicago's "White City," has any event occurred which has so called forth the enthusiastic coöperation of all classes of workers in that city. And following upon these greater exhibits, lesser exhibitions have sprung up all over the country.

All of these exhibits have the same aim—to show the conditions affecting the childhood of the given city, at home, at play, in school, at work, under all the difficulties of poverty, bad housing, bad sanitation, evil influences; and to offer suggestions, by an exhibit of all organizations dealing with children, of the ways and means through which childlife can be made safer and more wholesome.

"One baby out of every four drops into the grave before reaching the age of one year." This is a statement around which gathered many exhibits from the board of health, pure milk commissions, district nurses, infant welfare stations. The causes of infant mortality and the methods of prevention were shown most graphically. And the showing involved the individual family and the city government alike. For in these days the problem of homekeeping and the problem of city government are more closely connected than the average citizen realizes, until, perhaps, he sees a child welfare exhibit.

One-third of the babies left at the baby "checking station" in the Chicago exhibit, were left by their mothers with bottles of tea. The ideas of infant feeding thus displayed afford a side-light on the cause of infant mortality. Into all these homes the nurses of the infant welfare department, recently formed in the Chicago board of health, are preparing to go, bringing information and education to the mothers. This is merely one glimpse of the way in which the city government is reaching out to touch the life of the child in the home.

The section on health was only one division of the exhibit. There was a section on homes, showing housing conditions, home occupations, cost of food and clothing, food values, sleeping conditions, books for the home, toys, and many other things. There were also sections on recreation, on settlements and clubs, on education, on industrial conditions, on the child and the law, on churches, on philanthropy. In short, every aspect of the city's life was touched.

All sorts of people came to see "the show." The Italian mother was there, with a kerchief over her head, dragging her children along by the hand, tired and a little bewildered, but anxious to find out "what she could do for her children." The mayor of the city was there, in Kansas City at least, spending several afternoons in close study of the needs of the city's children. The high school civics class was there, in the afternoon and evening, proudly explaining to the passersby the meaning of the charts which they had drawn to show various types of city governments. The socialist and the representative of organized labor met in the section on industrial conditions and held fiery arguments with the child welfare "explainers" on the subject of workingmen's compensation and seasonal trades in their effect on the home.

A more thoroughly democratic gathering could hardly be imagined in any city. For when, as in Chicago, 30,000 school children take part in entertainments, as an exhibit of the music and gymnastics of the public school, there will be 60,000 parents from every ward in the city. From the fashionable districts and from the crowded tenements alike, they came together on the common ground of the child's welfare.

And being of all kinds and ages, they learned all varieties of things. I saw one small boy coming out of the exhibit after an entertainment, bearing aloft a poster which he had obtained at the information desk. As he pranced along between his father and mother, a friend remarked: "Well! he's learned his lesson, such as it is." "What is it?" I inquired. "Oh, that *some* good things come free, that not every one in the world is a tightwad," she replied. After all, that is not such a bad thing for a a boy to learn, in these days, when a youth is trained from babyhood to look out for "the main chance."

At the other extreme from the boy was the prominent social worker, who remarked:

> We are all of us learning, for the first time, what place our work has in the city's life. We have worked over our exhibits, trying to state in concrete terms our purpose and our success; then we see our organization placed here beside all the others, and we find out how inadequate we all are, and yet how important, each at our own job. We find out where there is over-lapping and where we can use each other in the future. And then we walk over to the section on industrial conditions, or on housing, or on infant mortality, and we see the big underlying problems, that we haven't any of us touched yet. And we realize that no private organization ever can touch those problems. Only all the people, acting for themselves through their representatives, can begin to make a dent in them.

Almost inevitably a child welfare exhibit brings about closer coöperation, not only between social workers so-called, but between social workers and city boards. This is very greatly to be desired. Until very recently the social worker has been disposed to assume hostility on the part of the city government and to leave it out of his counsels altogether. As one prominent worker remarked, in a city where it was proposed that the board of health be asked to coöperate with an exhibit: "You can't get any help from them; you can't ever expect anything from the city." And, expecting nothing, this prominent worker has never received anything.

Such pessimism may be well grounded in any given case; but if it is true, there is no hope for that city until the situation is radically altered. Until a given reform is made politically, it is not made permanently. The city government is the only machinery we have for reaching conditions throughout the city, and no private organizations can ever hope to do the work that the boards of health, of education, of parks, can do, when properly aroused and properly equipped. The private organizations may blaze the trail and set the direction of the path; they can never build the highway for the peoples.

All of these facts come out most strongly in the child welfare exhibits. The extent to which many municipal boards are doing "social work" in the care of children and young people, through nurses, playground directors, and teachers, is a revelation not only to the average citizen, but to many a trained social worker himself. And almost immediately there comes a popular demand that the city shall do even more than it has yet done There is a disposition on the part of the people to make use of their public boards, when they are once shown graphically what a powerful instrument they have at their disposal.

Several new pieces of legislation are to be laid at the door of the child welfare exhibits. In Chicago a new bathing beach was established in Grant Park for the downtown section of the city; an infant welfare department was added to the board of health. In Kansas City a factory inspection ordinance passed two days after the close of the exhibit, the opposing councilmen saying quite frankly that after what they saw "over there at Convention Hall" they dared no longer vote against it. In New York the board of estimate and apportionment increased the appropriation for the division of child hygiene by $250,000, and a juvenile court committee was formed, and is now developing a model children's court for the borough of Manhattan.

Results in private organizations are not less marked. A course in eugenics at the New York Y. M. C. A. was the direct outgrowth of the eugenics exhibit. A strong advocate of the large city institution for dependent children was converted to the cottage system and resolved to move his institution to the country where such a plan could be carried out. The present campaign for the improvement of newspaper comic supplements received its first impetus at a conference in the New York exhibit. And, perhaps more remarkable than all, at least two employers of large numbers of women are known to have gone directly from the exhibit on wages of girls in Kansas City, to look over their own payrolls and "see what could be done toward giving a 'living wage.'"

Yet it seems hardly fair to estimate the child welfare exhibits by isolated examples of what selected individuals have done. All of these results might perhaps have been attained in a less expensive way, through individual consultations. They are byproducts of the exhibit, not its main aim. The unique work which the exhibit has to do is a work of popular education. The thousands of mothers from every station in life who received suggestions for the enriching of the home; the thousands of fathers who learned "what the city can be made to do for my child;" the thousands of ordinary citizens who sat in the galleries listening to the music of children and then, stirred as they had seldom been before, by the sweetness and beauty and hope of childhood, thronged down into the aisles of the exhibit to copy statistics and learn facts; and last of all, the thousands of children who, as Mrs. Ella Flagg Young remarked, were impressed more than ever before by the fact that they were part of a great whole, of a city which was planning for their future, and of a festival to which they might contribute their part for the enjoyment of their fellow citizens; these are the people by whom the exhibit is to be judged. For only as we learn to work and to play together, and to understand together, by thousands, the needs and the resources which we have in common, is there any hope of attaining that democracy of which our country dreams.

Anna Louise Strong.[1]

MUNICIPAL CIVIL SERVICE REFORM

IT HAS been often said that, to secure good city government, we must purify our city politics," and I think this saying contains a large measure of truth. . . . . When we speak of "pure polititics," we mean politics controlled and guided by sincere, scrupulous and unselfish men; the politics of any community can be "purified" only by leading such men to engage in them and driving other men out of them; and each of us aids in the "purifying" process when he tries to render a political career attractive to our best citizens, and does what he can to make the worst gain a living otherwise.

To this end, a first step, and a very long one (so long that it may go far towards making any second step needless), will be the thoroughgoing, practical application of the principles of civil service reform in our municipal government. Here, however, we may well pause a moment to see if we fully understand what "civil service reform" means; and there is the more reason to do this because I believe no little confusion of thought exists on this subject, even among those in general sympathy with the movement for good government and pure politics, and that to this fact much of the prejudice and apathy encountered by the advocates of civil service reform can be, more or less directly, traced; whatever reasonable doubt may exist as to whether the American people really want civil service reform arises only from a difference of opinion, or rather a misapprehension, as to what civil service reform means. In truth, many persons imagine that civil service reform, as a system, requires the selection of all public officers by competitive examination, or else their retention in office during good behavior, and associate with it no other idea whatsoever beyond these two. Undoubtedly, in many cases the principles of the reform can be best applied practically to the choice of public servants by adopting a method of appointment which leaves no room for favoritism, and making continued employment and promotion depend, and depend only, upon proved efficiency and fidelity; but there is room for these principles, however the officer is chosen and however long or short, certain or uncertain may be his term. These principles, or, to speak more accurately, for they can all be reduced to one, this principle, is simply that every public office exists for the sole benefit of the people and cannot be maintained, consistently with the fundamental theory of our government, in any measure or under any circumstances for the benefit of the individual holding such office for the time being, or of any other individual or organization, and, therefore, every office ought to be filled with a sole regard to the fitness of the incumbent to so discharge its duties as to fulfil those ends which the people sought when they created it and seek when they pay for its maintenance.

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[1] Director of the St. Louis Child Welfare Exhibit.

When a city is about to choose its principal administrative officer how can it apply the principles of civil service reform in this choice? In a recent German paper the following appeared:

> The place of mayor of Magdeburg is vacant. The salary is 21,000 marks ($5250) a year, including the rental of a dwelling in the city hall. Besides his salary the incumbent will receive 4000 marks ($1000) for his official expenses. Candidates should apply before September 1.

The constitution and present laws of Maryland contain a virtual advertisement, published every four years, requesting those anxious for a like job in Baltimore to file applications with the supervisors of elections; which applications, each fourth year, are passed upon by the legal voters of the city on the Tuesday after the first Monday of May. Two of these applicants, known respectively as the Democratic and Republican nominees, are allowed to obtain a recommendation for the place of a somewhat peculiar character from certain classes of these voters on the like day in April, and, although the law gives these two individuals no material advantage over any other in the competition, experience teaches us that one or the other of them will be certainly chosen.

Some ten or eleven years ago, at a meeting of the National Civil Service Reform League held in New York, Theodore Roosevelt, then governor of the state, narrated an incident of his service as United States civil service commissioner. A request had been made to exempt from the competitive examinations customs officers on the Rio Grande frontier, because their duties required them to watch and often chase and arrest a class of smugglers decidedly "quick on the trigger" themselves and who needed officers no less "quick on the trigger" to deal with them. Mr. Roosevelt thereupon induced his colleagues to refuse the desired exemption, but to direct a competitive examination of candidates for these positions in shooting at a mark, and to credit those men who made good scores with a high percentage in their rating.

A speaker who followed him at the meeting suggested that, if the candidates, instead of using a target, had been allowed to shoot at each other, the results of this competition might have been even more satisfactory and decisive, not to mention the incidental advantages that there could be then no room for complaint as to the fairness of the marks or need for preserving the records. It may seem, at first sight, that a system of competition somewhat similar in consequences to the one thus proposed has been provided for applicants for our Baltimore mayoralty; but, as these are permitted only to kill off each other politically, instead of physically, the voters, first of the two leading parties, afterwards of the entire electorate, must, after all, bear the responsibility of deciding the contest; and a few words as to the principles on which they ought to decide it may not be untimely or wholly superfluous.

In the first place, they must remember that the mayor's obvious and most urgent duty is to frustrate the designs and foil the plots of those who correspond in mischievous activity to the Rio Grande smugglers. These people always propose to plunder and discredit the city in future as they have too often done, with great profit to themselves, in the past; if they fail in this purpose, it will not be for want of trying, and, although the mayor (perhaps unfortunately), is not expected, or even permitted, to "wing" a grafter or put a "potshot" into a boss, whenever he runs across an active member of one or the other fraternity, he needs no less vigilance and no less resolution to deal with such gentry as they should be dealt with. If he comes before the examining board, consisting in my native city of 120,000, or thereabouts, which must finally pass on his claims, bearing a certificate from the very people it will be his business as mayor to watch and fight, a certificate saying, in substance, that he suits them "down to the ground," and that they will do all they can, by hook or by crook, to get him the job he seeks, this endorsement ought to affect his chances as much as a glowing eulogy from the smugglers would have tended to promote the choice of a revenue officer. To "set a thief to catch a thief" may be sometimes good policy, but to set one picked out for the place by the thieves he is to catch seems more worthy of inmates of an insane asylum or of an institute for the feeble-minded than of other citizens.

Secondly, in the rating of these would-be public servants a very large percentage should be given to the applicant's record in making himself obnoxious to evil-doers and protecting the people's interest while holding other positions of public trust. Especially is he entitled to high credit if he has earned the ill-will of those who make their livelihood and gain actual or comparative wealth by preying on the public and particularly on his municipality. On the other hand, if his record as a trustee of the public is one of unbroken harmony with those who grow richer by making his *cetteux que trustent* poorer, this fact ought to lower his average very perceptibly: a watchdog particularly friendly with wolves is not one to put on guard at the sheepfold.

Thirdly, it will be well to conduct a brief written examination as to the candidate's views about pending measures of great moment to his community, and desirable, most of all, to get them down in black and white as to what they severally think of any such measures which tend to prevent the use of patronage as "spoils." Of course, it is possible that one may say he approves a proposal of this nature when his record shows, or tends strongly to show, that he speaks falsely; but, although possible, this is decidedly improbable; the chances are many to one that a man who doesn't wish to see it a law or mean to aid in its enactment, will try to avoid speaking of it at all; or, if compelled to say something, will shuffle and quibble, will say he hasn't had time to study its provisions carefully, or promise to support it with some unspecified amendments.

Fourthly and finally, we must remember that, although in many cities endorsements from the "affiliated" voters of the two great national parties, in the form of "nominations" for the office, are given, not by law, but by our political customs a very great weight in the determination of this question, these customs are by no means commendable, and, while it is overwhelmingly probable that in nine cases out of ten our choice will be practically one between the Democratic and the Republican nominees, we ought to have no more hesitancy in voting against the one of these who may agree with us as to the tariff, or any other national issue, if his competitor promises to make a better mayor, than we should have, under the like circumstances, in voting against a candidate who shared our religious belief. Macauley says, in a passage I have myself quoted on other occasions:

> The points of difference between Christianity and Judaism have very much to do with a man's fitness to be a bishop or a rabbi. But they have no more to do with his fitness to be a magistrate, a legislator or a minister of finance, than with his fitness to be a cobbler. Nobody has ever thought of compelling a cobbler to make any declaration of the true faith of a Christian. Any man would rather have his shoes mended by a heretical cobbler than by a person who had subscribed all the thirty-nine articles, but had never handled an awl. Men act thus, not because they are indifferent to religion, but because they do not see what religion has to do with the mending of their shoes. Yet religion has as much to do with the mending of shoes as with the budget and the army estimates.

And politics have about as much to do with the mending of shoes as with the paving of streets or the extinction of fires. The points of difference between Republicanism and Democracy have very much to do with a man's fitness to be a president or a congressman, but they also have nothing or next to nothing in the world to do with his fitness to be a mayor or a city comptroller or a president of the city council.

We say these things, not because we are indifferent to politics, but because we see how little, how very little national politics have properly to do with municipal officers. It is related that when General Bourmont was presented to Blücher, the latter, a man of violent prejudices but a thorough soldier, indicated his professional contempt for the deserter so unmistakably as to embarrass his more diplomatic staff. One of them, thinking it might please his commander, pointed out the enormous white cockade which Bourmont ostentatiously wore in proof of devotion to Legitimist principles. "Bah," said the old Field Marshal; "that doesn't matter. A blackguard stays a blackguard, however you label him." When the voters of a great American city clearly understand that "labeling" the tool of a corrupt "ring" the nominee of a great party leaves him just what he was before, and doesn't change in the least their duty as voters, when that time shall come then they will have a good mayor.

Charles J. Bonaparte.[1]

Baltimore, Md.

REFORM VIA DEMOCRACY

THE reformers of a generation past sought good government by way of "checks and balances," seeking to devise a framework of government so ingenious that under it no official could fail to give good government. It was somewhat like tying the steering wheel of an automobile to make sure that the chauffeur would drive straight.

The new generation, working for political reform, no longer tries to get good government on *behalf* of the people, but seeks to put the people in a position where they can easily get *for themselves* whatever kind of government they want, believing that the people will be found to be conservative and at least as wise as that ruling class, the politicians, whose subjects they now are. Modern effort strives to create sensitive forms of government. Every elective official is to be made a shining mark for criticism. His responsibility is to be clearly fixed, and as a necessary requirement in fixing responsibility thus, the officer is to be given all the powers he needs to carry out the people's wish.

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[1] This article is a condensation of his address at the Richmond meeting of the National Municipal League, in November, 1911. From 1903 to 1910 Mr. Bonaparte was president of the League. He is now a member of its council, chairman of its advisory committee and the chairman of the council of the National Civil Service Reform League. He was Secretary of the Navy and afterwards attorney general of the United States in President Roosevelt's administration.

The most signal American instance of a government which is so sensitive to public opinion that it dare not disobey the public will is the commission plan. Although it was not designed to be an elective system, it has worked better than those that were. It vests all the powers of the city in a single board. This board has power to raise as much money as it needs to give efficient service. It has power to cut down service as much as may be necessary to give low taxes. It has power to provide improvements or to make economies. If it fails to satisfy the people, the board has no one else to blame. It cannot say "we are helpless." It cannot say "it was the other fellow's fault." It can only say to a complainant "we are sorry we overlooked that but we'll fix it at once." The individual officers are clear targets for public opinion and are correspondingly more sensitive to public opinion than the multitude of obscure officials in the typical old style plan. It is in design and operation a government which is so exposed to popular oversight that it can hardly resist the public wish. This is democracy. A reformer seeking to change conditions has only to explain his ideas to the people and excite their cupidity by making his proposal seem desirable.

The commission plan is not an ideal democracy. Better ones have been found in foreign cities, and the new direction of political reform effort must be toward creating ideal sensitive democracies.

Richard S. Childs.[1]

A PRACTICE SCHOOL COURSE IN CIVICS

THOUGH boys and girls at the age of entering the grammar grades are not yet ready for the more formal treatment of civics which might be profitable for older persons, they are, nevertheless, *already citizens*, and as such should be trained to think about civic matters. Formal as this may sound, it becomes very simple when we stop to consider what we mean by thinking civically. At almost every turn the child is confronted by something which the community is doing. Whether it is the gas by which he studies, or the car which passes his door, or the policeman who protects him at the crossing, or the postman who brings the family mail, or the school where he spends so much of his time, he is constantly coming into close touch with civic affairs. The impressionable early years are the ones in which to lay the foundation of civic ideals and civic righteousness. If, then, early in the child's school life we can begin to attract his attention to the services which the community is rendering and the return which he personally can make to the community, and get him to *think on these things*, we shall be arousing an interest in public affairs which will make for the efficient adult citizen.

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[1] Secretary, Short Ballot Organization.

In the Practice School (fifth to eighth school years inclusive) of the Philadelphia School of Pedagogy, the following tentative course in civics is gradually being evolved, with the evident interest of pupil and teacher alike. In the first of the fifth year a beginning is made with the child's common experiences within his home and his school. Gas is the first subject taken up informally and the children are encouraged to tell what they know about it and its uses. The teacher guides the conversation so that it naturally leads to the question of where we get our gas. The gas pipe is traced through the house to the meter and then to the street. When it is learned that the gas is manufactured at a central plant the children are encouraged to visit it, with teacher or parent, and the result of the visit is a letter or report on what was seen. In like manner the subjects of electricity, water, sewage, and the telephone are considered, all of which, it will be observed, may come within the pupils' immediate experience. After the service of the community to the child has been shown with each of the above, the reciprocal duties of the child to the community are brought out by careful questioning which follows the lines of the pupils' own observation and experience.

In the second half of the fifth year what the child sees by looking out of the window, at home or at school, is drawn upon for material. For example, the policeman, the fireman, the postman, the street sweeper, the garbage collector, the ashes collector are severally taken up, in the manner already described, never omitting a possible trip and report or forgetting to emphazise the corresponding duties of citizenship resting upon the young citizens of the class.

During the early part of the sixth year some of the educational institutions of the city are visited, such as schools, playgrounds, parks, libraries, museums, historical buildings and localities. The usual reports are made, followed by class discussion.

Later in the year visits are made to various public institutions, such as city hall, bourse, custom house, mint, armories and arsenals, hospitals, juvenile court. The ensuing reports and discussions help the children to understand better what they have seen. Just what places shall be visited during the entire sixth year must depend on the accessibility of each place to the individual child, the membership of the Practice School being drawn from all sections of the city.

No regular text books are used in the fifth and sixth years, but much supplementary material is introduced by the teacher to aid in the interpretation of what has been observed on the various trips. Among other suitable reading books used, special mention ought to be made of Richman and Wallach's *Good Citizenship* and Hill's *Lessons for Junior Citizens.*

By the close of the sixth year the pupils have acquired a fund of first-hand civic information and experience of a concrete and practical nature, no attempt having been made to generalize or to discuss political rights or duties from a legal standpoint. In the seventh year more attention can safely be given to the end and aim of governmental activity and the way in which public and private agencies unite to accomplish results. And for this purpose no better introduction can be found for Philadelphia girls and boys than the beginnings and growth of community action in their home city. They will see how various civic functions, such as street paving and cleaning, water supply, etc., at first performed by each householder for himself, were gradually taken over by the municipality and performed for all alike.

This concrete example of community growth leads naturally to a discussion of the meaning of "community" and of "citizenship." And the important truth is impressed upon the pupils that they are *now* citizens of various communities, namely, the home, the school, the playground, the church, the city, the state, the nation. The family and the home as factors in this community life are particularly emphasized, that the children may rightly appreciate the civic importance of the home. Then follows the story of the making of American citizens out of a constant stream of foreign immigrants, both as to naturalization itself and as to the educative process that may fit the strangers into their new city environment.

A series of studies is next undertaken to find out how the community (city) aids the normal citizen in relation to life, health, property, working and business conditions, transportation and communication, education, recreation, religious worship. And this is naturally followed by a brief study of how the community (city) takes care of its sub-normal citizens, usually referred to as the dependents, the defectives, and the delinquents. Emphasis is placed upon the idea of prevention, or of restoration wherever possible. Poverty, vice and crime are coming to be recognized as social diseases, in large part, and this is a fact which every boy and girl should be made to feel.

As each function is discussed, the organization of the city government to do this community work is outlined, with frequent reference to the Philadelphia charter and to ordinances of councils. And careful consideration is given to the coöperation of private agencies with various municipal bureaus and departments, that the pupils may see how community and citizen work together. How the city gets its money to do all it does is briefly explained.

By the time the eighth year is reached the pupil has become so thoroughly grounded in the governmental activities of the city that he is ready to be taken into the larger field of state and nation. Very much the same plan is followed as in the preceding year.

During the first term the work shapes itself as follows: first, how the community (commonwealth) aids the normal citizen in his desire for health, security of person and property, business opportunity, education; and second, how the community (commonwealth) provides for its unfortunates, by means of charitable and penal institutions. This includes some consideration of the simpler forms of business law and practice, and also some of the commoner types of criminal offences and the method of their repression and punishment. The governmental organization—legislative, executive, judicial—back of these activities is sketched in outline, both as to selection and control of state officials; and not forgetting to discover where the money is found to keep the machinery going.

During the second term of the eighth year the pupils learn, as fully as time permits, how the federal government looks after the varied needs and interests of a hundred millions of citizens and subjects, at home and abroad by the gathering of invaluable statistics and other information, foretelling the weather, charting the seas, negotiation treaties; or, even more directly, through the post office and postal savings bank. Once again the governmental structure—legislative, executive, judicial—is sketched in outline, and the sources of income are made clear.

While the study of municipal government is going on the class is organized on the plan of the Philadelphia city government, so far as practicable, and then according to the commission plan; and by an easy transition, when state and national government are reached the class takes on those organizations respectively. This will be recognized as differing from the well known "School City" plan in that the class is organized for purposes of instruction and not for purposes of self-government.

For the seventh and eighth years, respectively, helpful text books have been found which admirably illustrate the newer civics: Dunn's *The Community and the Citizen* and Forman's *Essentials in Civil Government*.

It will be observed that throughout the last two years, when the more serious study of civics is being attempted, the order followed is invariably that of the child's own interest and appreciation, namely, from *function* to *structure*, from the executive department which *does things* to the legislative which *plans the things to be done* and the judicial which *interprets and helps enforce* those plans; and then, if necessary, to the charter or constitution which lays down the *legal powers and duties* of each branch of government.

Moreover, the possibilities for coöperation between the community, acting through government, and the citizens, young and old, acting singly or in voluntary associations, is never lost sight of. How great is this departure from the solemn farce of practically memorizing the federal constitution) now in vogue in the City of Penn and elsewhere—can best be appreciated by those teachers who are anxiously awaiting deliverance from bondage through long overdue revision of their prescribed course of study.

J. Lynn Barnard.[1]

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[1] Professor in the Philadelphia School of Pedagogy.

REPORTS AND DOCUMENTS

Edited by Professor John A. Fairlie

University of Illinois, Urbana—Champaign, Illinois.

The McAneny Committee Report.—The Interborough Rapid Transit Company in New York City, under date of December 5, 1910; made a proposition to the city to construct, equip and operate certain transit lines, the main trunk of which lines would carry the Broadway subway down Seventh Avenue to the Battery, and the portion of the present subway on Fourth Avenue up Lexington Avenue to the Bronx. The public service commission conditionally recommended the acceptance of the proposition, and asked the board of estimate and apportionment to express its opinion on the terms proposed. The board of estimate accordingly appointed a special committee to confer with the public service commission, which committee was known as the McAneny Committee.

During the consideration of the matter, and on March 2, 1911, the Brooklyn Rapid Transit Company made a proposition to build certain lines, the chief of which was in Broadway, Manhattan, swinging eastward and entering the borough of Queens, its southern end connecting with the existing rapid transit lines of that company in Brooklyn. Subsequent to its first proposal it agreed, under certain considerations, to operate the lines proposed by the Interborough Company in case the city should so desire. The conference then had before it two propositions from these two companies, and after much consultation, on June 5, 1911, a report was made jointly by the board of estimate and the public service commission. The chief features of this included the following:

(1) Leases for forty-nine years.

(2) Provision for recapture of releases after a period of ten years.

(3) For an equal division of profits, after providing for operating, fixed, and certain other charges on the part of the company.

(4) Operation costs on any separate division or extensions of the system to be figured on a cost-per-passenger basis, as figured on the whole system.

(5) Deficits arising from the operation of extensions to be paid for out of the city's share of profits till the company has accumulated 3 per cent annually upon its total investment, in excess of operating and carrying charges.

(6) For the use of existing rapid transit lines of the Brooklyn Rapid Transit Company as thrown into the general system, the city proposed to permit the company to retain a sum equal to the net profits from the operation of its existing lines during the year ending June 30, 1911, before paying the interest or sinking fund charges upon either its own or the city's bonds.

The Interborough Company refused to accept the terms proposed. The board of estimate thereupon voted to give the Brooklyn Rapid Transit Company the lines that had been offered to the Interborough Company. Construction work was then begun by the city upon the proposed lines. During the early fall of 1911, it was rumored that certain of the city officials were holding conferences with representatives of the Pennsylvania Railroad and of the banking firm of J. P. Morgan and Company. They were supposed to be acting as emissaries of the Interborough Rapid Transit Company in an endeavor to open negotiations with the hope that the city would again consider a proposition from the Interborough Company and would modify its former terms. At this writing (February 9, 1912), it has become certain that such negotiations are in progress. The Interborough Company, however, has not up to this time sent an official communication, incorporating a proposition, to the city. It seems, however, probable that such a proposition will be received in the near future.

Under the terms proposed to the Brooklyn Rapid Transit Company, the city would have built all of the subways and leased them to that company on a forty-nine year basis, but subject to recapture at any time after ten years. The terms proposed by the city seem to have been just to the company and safe and acceptable for the city. The reason for again opening negotiations with the Interborough Company on the part of the city is not at the present writing clear.

Henry C. Wright.

New York City.

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Recent City-Planning Reports.—The rapidity of the growth of interest in city-planning in American is amazing. You have only to look over the roll of honor as published at the back of John Nolen's recent, report, "Madison a Model City," to appreciate how many cities have got the city-planning fever. The enthusiasm is contagious. At the same time, however, it often blinds. Studying some thirty or forty of these reports as I recently had occasion to do, I was struck by several things. In most cases the demand was for a more beautiful city—a city to which the stranger would be immediately attracted and a city in the contemplation of which the native citizen could feel a just pride. In short the demand has been for those surface embellishments which catch the passing glance; those things which appeal to the unthinking crowd. In the concrete, it is the parks, the boulevards, and the broad avenues, the showy civic centers with their awe-inspiring approaches, which have in the main dominated American city-planning.

Looking farther we see a change coming over these tendencies, and in a number of recent reports, we find a distinct gain in practicalness. The way was led by the report of the metropolitan improvement commission of Boston, which came out in 1909 and which was ably seconded by the report of the Pittsburgh civic commission of 1910, but most unfortunately none of the successors have adequately followed up this lead. A keynote of efficiency and thoroughness was set in this Boston 1909 report which argues well for the future of American city-planning. The principle is this: a city is essentially a place where people live and work, and work to live; anything that can be done to make the city a better place to work in, a better place to live in should be done as a matter of common sense; anything that is going to make a man's work easier or more enjoyable; anything that is going to make his life more worth the living is fundamental, absolutely, to city-planning. The work of the great majority of the people is entirely dependent upon the conditions governing manufacture and commerce, these in turn are in large measure dependent upon the facilities of transportation by water and by land. Whether life is worth while or not depends absolutely on conditions of housing, recreation, and transit.

These things—transportation, transit, housing, and recreation (in its broadest sense) are the vital things in city-life. They are the things which twenty-four hours out of every twenty-four, profoundly affect the life of every man, woman, and child.

Glance over the city-planning reports; pathetically few are those which have seriously considered these facts. Cognizance can not be taken of them without a thorough impartial knowledge of conditions as they exist in the given community; this demands a series of careful surveys made by thoroughly trained and large minded experts. You can almost name on the fingers of one hand, the cities or towns where anything like this has been done, and in the cities which first occur in this connection, such as Boston, Pittsburgh, Chicago, Los Angeles, and Rochester, you will find that such surveys have been confined almost exclusively to transportation and traffic. In places like New Haven where a social survey was actually made it has been almost ignored in the public report. In city after city, for which attractive reports have recently been published, if you visit them with an open mind you will find festering slum gnawing at their very vitals which sooner or later with the inevitableness of fate will poison the whole mass. Intelligence and foresight can stop this. There is not a moment to lose, for it may soon be too late.

If there is any one way in which city-planning may be of the greatest service to the community it is in attacking this problem. If there is any one service city-planning can render to humanity, it is that of making the city a decent and a fit place for human beings to live in.

Fundamental in the working out of a comprehensive plan for any city should be the consideration of these vital facts; any city which dodges them is worse than no plan at all. City-planning of the future must be a far bigger and more all-comprising thing than has been city-planning heretofore. Such is the problem we have inevitably to face.

George B. Ford.

New York City.

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Civil Service Conditions in Kansas City.—The first board of civil service of Kansas City, Missouri, was organized April 26, 1910. Since that time the board has held 448 competitive examinations with 4585 competitors. Of these approximately 52 per cent obtained places on the eligible lists—1253 certifications for appointment have been made exclusive of the 1068 appointments in the labor class. Only 3 per cent of those certified have been discharged for cause. Approximately 54 per cent of the persons holding positions prior to the examinations were successful in retaining their positions. Under the law the incumbents of positions were required either to win out by merit on competitive examinations or vacate in favor of persons heading eligible lists.

According to the custom established by the board each examination has been conducted by a special committee of citizens acting with the chief examiner. In selecting the citizen examiners, usually three in number, the board has undertaken to secure persons expert in or having definite knowledge of the requirements of the position. These citizens serve without pay and the city has thus had the assistance of 197 representative men and women. Of these 76 were engaged in business; 93 were of the leading professions; 14 city and government officials; and the remainder tradesmen and mechanics.

In addition to the written examination each applicant is brought before the committee and questioned orally as to experience, habits, physical condition, etc., and graded, and this grade is averaged with the grade made in the written examination. The citizens committee in coöperation with the chief examiner prepares the written questions and grades the papers. The results have been gratifying. A comparison of twelve months in the license department under the merit system with a corresponding period under the former régime shows an increase of more than 40 per cent or $71,532.75 in the revenue with no material change in expenditures.

The auditor in his report, speaking of salaries for the year in his department, says: "The actual saving in money has amounted to $12,620.05, and the force has been reduced from an average of twenty-six clerks to an average of sixteen."

In the inspection division of the engineering department the cost of inspection under the former régime was 6.36 per cent of the cost of the work done, but for the period under the merit system the cost has been reduced to 2.9 per cent or less than one-half of the former cost.

The superintendent of building says: "The 'don't care spirit' has entirely been eliminated from this department. I believe that the men in my employ at the present time are all doing conscientious work without fear and without showing favoritism to any one."

The superintendent of the board of public welfare says: "One effect of the examinations is to cause a very large amount of careful study and reading relative to all lines of work to be done by the city's employees, and also by a large number of other people who contemplate taking these examinations. The educational effect of this system upon the whole community of social workers in Kansas City has been splendid."

It is generally admitted that Mayor Darius A. Brown has become stronger politically by consistently upholding strict enforcement of the civil service law.

James W. S. Peters.

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National Budgets and Balance Sheets as Related to Municipal Statements.—A matter of no little importance in the improvement of municipal accounts and reports, now going on rapidly in various parts of the country, is the work at Washington of the "President's commission on economy and efficiency," relating to the national budget and to national balance sheets. The latter especially is of very great moment to municipalities, for the reason that classifications of assets and liabilities may, and in fact should, comprise almost identical categories for the nation, for the state, and for the municipality, whether town or city.

While so broad a generalization would not be warranted if we were speaking of the transactions during the year, that is to say, of the revenues and of the expenditures, yet when speaking of the condition of the finances at the end of the year, namely, the "balance sheet" of assets and liabilities, we are stating the fact when such an assertion is made. It is evident that on the asset side the classification must be the same in all these governmental statements of condition. All have "cash" balances; all have "accounts receivable" of one kind or another, to wit, uncollected revenues (taxes, fees, etc.); all have "advances" or "suspense" accounts of various kinds.

On the other side—the liability side—all have *payables* of various kinds. There are actual debts due to creditors and there are reserves; the latter in many categories, but all of the same general nature. In other words, while the *purposes* of expenditure in nation, state and city vary greatly and while the *sources* of revenue vary correspondingly, it is the fact that the statement of condition, i.e., the contrast of resources remaining available at the end of the year with the debts and reserves against these resources, is almost identical in purpose and in form of statement for all governmental functions.

For this reason, we say, the work of the President's commission should have a very great effect upon the municipal situation so far as forms of balance sheets are concerned. With the prestige of the national government behind it the commission may be able to provide classifications and categories which will be applicable all the way down the line, through states and counties to cities and small towns.

It is expected that the results of the work of the Commission in these directions will soon be available and will in due time be published in these columns.

Harvey S. Chase.

Washington, D. C.

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The Philadelphia Milk Show.—The milk show which was held in Philadelphia from May 20 to 27, 1911, was a success and its promoters have done well to give it permanent form by issuing this report which not only gives a good picture of the show but sets forth clearly both the commendable features of the dairy business and its faults that need correction. A list is given of the societies that managed different parts of the show, and there is a detailed account of the way it was organized, financed and given publicity. This part of the report is likely to be a source of useful information and fruitful suggestion to those who may undertake, by similar enterprises, to enlighten the public on milk, tuberculosis, the administration of cities, etc. The report emphasizes the fact that the milk problem presents itself in different ways to the producer, to the distributor or middleman, and to the public and that all three of these are dependent on boards of health for the proper regulation of the business and on manufacturers for the machinery to carry it on. The function of the show was to promote and harmonize these interests. It is told how the people, and particularly the children, were brought to the show and encouraged to use milk by diagrams showing its food value and cheapness, by demonstrations of how milk should be prepared for babies and by the serving of good milk from a booth. Numerous exhibits by model dairies, certified milk farms and boards of health, together with models, photographs and moving pictures taught the public to discriminate between good and bad milk and that the best milk might be spoiled by careless keeping in the home. Methods of pasteurization were shown and the relation of excessive infant mortality in the summer time to impure milk was explained by means of charts. It is stated that special efforts were made to bring the farmers to the show and to procure prominent speakers at the dairy institute organized for their benefit. The list of men who, at the school of veterinary medicine at the University of Pennsylvania, addressed the health officers in convention at the show is given. So is a detailed account of each exhibit. Some thirty-odd full page half tones and numerous cuts illustrate the show; they are in the main instructive but some of them and the long lists of committee members might well have been omitted. The show coast $10,800 and was attended by about 110,500 people; it had a good influence in many parts of the country and it is hoped that the publication of this report may lead to big and little shows in every state in the Union.

H N. PARKER.

University of Illinois.

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More City Plans.—*The Municipal League News* of Seattle for October 21, 1911, has published a review of the report of Virgil G. Bogue, the expert of the municipal plans commission, which had been approved by the commission and was presented to the city council, September 30, 1911. The report is a volume of 236 pages with 68 illustrations in the form of maps, diagrams, and drawings. It discusses such matters as arterial highways, park improvements, harbor improvements, development of a central water front, and street railways.[1]

In January, 1911, Bion J. Arnold submitted to the mayor and council committee on local transportation a detailed report presenting "Recommendations and General Plans for a Comprehensive Passenger Subway System for the City of Chicago." During the winter these and other plans for subways, harbor and park improvements in Chicago have been given serious consideration.

Charles H. Wacker, chairman of the Chicago plan commission has published a brief *Manual of the Chicago Plan* for use in the high schools of that city.

The *California Outlook* for November 4, 1911, contains in full the preliminary report of Bion J. Arnold on the "Transportation Problem of Los Angeles." The general outline of this report is indicated by a list of the main topical headings, as follows: Municipal railroad passenger stations; grade crossings; freight handling, local street railways; interurban railways; immediate relief from main street congestion; city and district planning, and a comprehensive and constructive transit plan. These topics show that the report deals with much more than a system of urban passenger distribution, and is in considerable measure a general discussion of all phases of the transportation problems in Los Angeles.

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[1] The voters refused to approve this plan at the election on March 5.

The city-planning commission of Jersey City, has published several pamphlets under the general title, "Know City-Planning."

"A Plan for the Improvement of the River Front of Albany, N. Y," has been prepared and published by a committee of the chamber of commerce.

A special commission appointed in Cambridge, Mass., prepared and submitted, in June, 1911, a report upon a comprehensive plan for the development and improvement of the streets and the disposal of refuse.

The fourth annual report of the Hartford, Conn., commission on the city plan, includes a monograph on public comfort stations, by Frederick L. Ford, formerly city engineer and secretary of the commission, and also a summary of ordinance provisions limiting the height of buildings in certain American cities.

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Six Years of Municipal Research.—The New York bureau of municipal research has published a record of its work since its organization in 1906 to the end of 1911, under the title "Six Years of Municipal Research for Greater New York." This explains the purposes and methods of the bureau and summarizes the results of its more important investigations, with a brief reference to similar work in other cities.

Since its beginning the bureau has received contributions amounting to $402,000, besides $268,000 for special purposes. Starting with a staff of eight it has had from forty to fifty during the past four years. Its methods have been the most intensive investigation of the subjects considered, in coöperation with public officials; followed by descriptive, critical and constructive reports to both officials and the general public, and supplemented by publicity and active efforts to correct evils and secure improvement in methods.

The work of the bureau has centered to a large extent around finance administration, but including much more than the finance department. That department has been thoroughly reorganized, with notable improvements in its methods of inspection, audit, payment, collection and reports. Accounting methods in all the city departments have been revised. The budget methods have been radically reformed; budget estimates have been printed and explained in detail by means of press notices, budget exhibits and circulars to taxpayers organizations; and have been thoroughly discussed at conferences of officials, social workers and taxpayers. An investigation of water revenues led to a reorganization of collection methods which has increased the revenues from this source $2,000,000 a year. By standardizing supplies and salaries enormous savings have been made in expenditures—$900,000 saved in seven years by the board of education through standardizing fuel alone; $1,200-000 saved by standardizing the quantity and forms of official reports and books. By reconciling the comptroller's and department's books, $10,000,000 has been released for reduction of taxes in 1912.

The work of the New York bureau has led to the establishment of similar bureaus in Philadelphia, Cincinnati, Chicago, Milwaukee, and Memphis, and on a smaller scale in Boston, Baltimore, St. Paul and Atlanta. Agents of the New York bureau have made municipal research studies in St. Louis, Hoboken, Montclair, Boston, Buffalo, Pittsburgh, Rochester and Yonkers. A special fund has been raised for promoting efficient municipal accounting in American cities; and a detailed study of commission government, with plans for more efficient and progressive work, is to be published during the spring.

To develop further work along the lines of this bureau, a National Training School for Public Service was established in 1911, to be conducted by the bureau.

The Gothenburg System.—Stuart J. Fuller, United States consul at Gothenburg, Sweden, has prepared an account of the law and regulations governing the manufacture and sale of alcoholic beverages in Gothenburg, published as Special Consular Report, No. 49. The manufacture of spirituous and malt liquors in Sweden is regulated by the government as an incident to the collection of excise taxes. The retail trade in spirituous liquors (those containing 25 per cent of alcohol or over) is limited to the Gothenburg System Corporation, which operates a number of establishments and sub-licenses others. In 1910 there were 29 places in Gothenburg where spirits were sold at retail for consumption off the premises, and 44 places where spirits were sold at retail for consumption on the premises. These are strict regulations as to the maintenance of order, against sales to minors and limiting the hours of sale, the rules of the company in some cases imposing greater restrictions than those required by law. The company is limited to a return of 5 per cent on its capital of $27,000, profits over this amount being turned over to the state and the municipality.

Under this system the sale of spirits has diminished, from 22 litres per inhabitant in 1875 to 10 litres in 1905. But drunkenness does not seem to have been decreased, so far as may be judged from the number of arrests. In the twenty years from 1887 to 1906, the municipality received $3,317,000 from the company's profits, which has been used largely for schools, libraries, museums, parks, and other welfare work. In 1910 the city received $160,000 as its share of the profits, and the national government $205,000.

The sale of wine and beer is not included in the company's monopoly; and dealers in these are licensed by the local government board. At the time of the report there were 518 shops licensed for the sale of wine and beer for off-consumption, and 187 places for sale on the premises. This is a much larger number of places than will be found in most American cities of the same population as Gothenburg (168,000).

In addition to the discussion of the system and its operation, Consul Fuller's report gives translations of the royal ordinances governing the sale of spirits and wine and beer in Sweden, and of the special rules enforced in Gothenburg, with statistics published by the Gothenburg System Corporation.

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Short Ballot and Home Rule in Ohio.—The Municipal Association of Cleveland has published two important reports addressed to the Constitutional Convention in session in that state.

One of these is entitled "The Need of a Short Ballot in Ohio." This shows that under the present laws, the voters of Cleveland are called on in each two-year period to vote for 74 separate officers, more than 40 of each at one election. The ballot at the state and county election in 1908 contained the names of 391 candidates; and at the 1911 primary election 324 names appeared on the tickets of the two dominant parties. At the election in November, 1911, each voter in Cleveland received seven separate and distinct ballots; and each voter in Cincinnati received nine separate and distinct ballots.

After discussing the state, county and municipal offices, the report proposes a reduction of the elective state officials (including members of the legislature and judges) to an average of ten in each community, county officials to an average of nine, and city offices to a total of six, to be voted for by each elector. On this basis the total number of offices to be voted for at a state and county election would be reduced from 43 to 13, and the municipal offices from 30 to a maximum of 10. In view of the probable opposition from rural counties to a radical change in the present system, the report favors a grant of home rule both to counties and cities, which would permit the more populous counties and cities to adopt a form of government based on the short ballot principle.

The second report is on "Constitutional Home Rule for Ohio Cities." This gives a brief history of legislative control of cities in Ohio, under the régime of special charters before 1851, the complicated system of classification developed under the constitutional restrictions on special legislation, and the rigidly uniform municipal organization in force since 1902. After discussing the defects of legislative control, the report describes the system of home rule charters now authorized in the eight states of Missouri, California, Washington, Minnesota, Colorado, Oregon, Oklahoma and Michigan. Lastly, there is considered the need for constitutional limitations on home rule in regard to public taxation, indebtedness, education, and uniformity of accounts.

*

The Wilson Ballot in Maryland.—The Honest Ballot League of Maryland has published a pamphlet on "The Wilson Ballot in Maryland Politics," by Vernon S. Bradley. In 1901 a new election law abolished the party emblem on election ballots and did away with the provision for voting a straight party ticket by a single mark, requiring each voter to make a separate mark for every candidate for whom he voted. The Wilson law of 1904 applied at first to nine counties and has since been extended to two others. Under this law party names (as well as emblems) and the alphabetical arrangement of names have been abolished; and the election supervisors in each county have power to arrange the names of candidates and to determine practically all questions relating to the ballot.

Mr. Bradley, after considering various alleged objects of this legislation, charges that "the real object of the Wilson law was to save the political lives of a Democratic ring of professional politicians." In discussing the operation of the law, a series of ballots used in different counties are reproduced, showing the most whimsical variations in size, arrangement of names and devices to guide the instructed voter and confuse others. Different styles of type have been used in almost every county, with a tendency towards unusual styles, such as italics and Old English.

In conclusion, Mr. Bradley claims that the Wilson ballot has disfranchised 50,000 voters, and that it has made Maryland a one party state and has given that party a political ring.

*

Finance and Taxation.—*The Single Tax Review*, for May–June, 1911, is a Vancouver special number, with several articles discussing the results of the exemption of improvements from local taxation in that city.

A report of the committee on housing adopted by the Pittsburgh civic commission, December 11, 1911, recommends that the tax rate on buildings should be fixed at not more than 50 per cent of the rate on land, the change to be introduced gradually during a period of five years.

Comptroller Prendergast of New York City issued in October, 1911, a pamphlet on "The Business of New York City: How the City Gets its Money and How It Spends It." This gives a popular presentation of the city finances, including budget appropriations, tax levy and collections, funded debt and debt limit, and assessed valuations.

The Massachusetts bureau of statistics has published a circular in regard to the form note certification act and the incurrence of debt under the general laws of the commonwealth.

In the report of Comptroller Taussig of St. Louis for the year 1910–11, in addition to the detailed statements and estimates for the past and current year, there are comparative tables giving financial data from 1877 to 1911, and a comparative summary from 1895 to 1911.

The report of the Auditor of Los

Angeles, Cal., for the year 1910–11, contains, in addition to the annual statements, an appendix of miscellaneous information with comparative tables of receipts and disbursements for several years and data relating to bonds, valuations, taxes etc.

*

The Boston School System.—The finance commission of the city of Boston has published a report on the Boston school system, the result of an inquiry made at the request of Mayor Fitzgerald. This includes an account of the development of the public schools, a financial review and a series of statistical tables comparing conditions in Boston with other large cities in the United States.

In the main, the report endorses and approves the existing system, and finds little opportunity for retrenchment in school expenditures. The difficulties in the way of satisfactory statistical comparisons with other cities are pointed out; but so far as these can be made the result is shown to be favorable. The average cost for all pupils in Boston is exceeded only by San Francisco and New York; but this is chiefly accounted for by the large percentage of high school pupils in Boston, which is greater than in any other of the ten cities over 300,000 population from which data was secured. The large expenditures of recent years have been due to an attempt to supply the deficiencies of previous years and to meet real needs. The administration of the school committee, both on the educational and business sides, is entitled to the full confidence of the community. Some recommendations for minor changes in methods are made.

*

The Red Plague.—In 1910 the board of governors of the Commonwealth Club of California appointed a committee composed of both medical men and laymen to investigate and report on the influence of venereal diseases. At meetings of the club held in February, and April, 1911, the members of the committee presented papers on various aspects of the question: Dr. William Aphuls spoke on the Results of Reglementation and Prophylaxis; Mr. Wollenberg on the Statistics of Regulation and Methods of Education; Dr. Rixford on Preventive Methods. After discussion five of the six conclusions and recommendations of the committee were approved, as follows:

1. The establishment of free dispensaries for the treatment of venereal diseases.
2. Compulsory provision for the treatment of venereal diseases in the city and county hospital.
3. A system of public school education on sex questions and venereal diseases.
4. That the state board of health be requested to gather suitable data and disseminate literature on sex hygiene, assisted by the various health boards.
5. That the various boards of school directors throughout the state be requested to arrange for lectures to the pupils of the higher grades and their parents on sex hygiene.

The addresses and discussions on this subject have been published in the *Transactions of the Commonwerlth Club*, volume vi, no. 1.

*

Ontario Liquor License Law.—The report on the operation of the liquor licenses acts, Ontario, for the year 1910 shows that the total number of provincial licenses issued has decreased from 6185 in 1874 to 2200 in 1909. The minimum number of licenses (1974) were issued in 1886, after which there was an increase to 3560 in 1889. Since the latter date there has been a steady reduction in the number issued. The number of prisoners committed for drunkenness has, however, increased from an annual average of 1920 for the five years from 1896 to 1900, to an annual average of 4974 for the five years from 1906 to 1910.

License fees under the Ontario law range from $120 in unincorporated districts to $1600 for a tavern license in a city of over 200,000 population. The total amount paid to municipalities for the license year 1909–10 was $399,167; and the revenue received by the Province for the same year amounted to $497,776.

A schedule shows a list of 275 municipalities in which prohibition was in force in 1910. The largest of these were Galt, Owen Sound and Brantford.

The liquor license act, as amended to and including the session of 1911, has been published in pamphlet form.

⁂

State Municipal Leagues.—The *Proceedings of the Twelfth Annual Convention of the League of Cities of the Third Class in Pennsylvania,* held at Easton, August 29–31, 1911, includes articles on assessment of real estate, the McKeesport filtration plant, the coal smoke nuisance and a discussion on street cleaning.

Among the papers in the *Proceedings of the Third Annual Convention of the League of Kansas Municipalities* held at Topeka, October 11–12, 1911, may be noted those on the London sliding scale, uniform municipal accounting, the police problem, and municipal reference departments.

The September, 1911, number of *The Municipality* contains a report of the proceedings of the thirteenth annual convention of the League of Wisconsin Municipalities, including addresses on oiling streets, garbage crematories and municipal reference bureaus.

⁂

Reports of the Chicago Bureau of Public Efficiency.—The budget of Cook County, Illinois, January, 1911. Proposed purchase of voting machines, May, 1911. Street pavement in the city of Chicago, June, 1911. Electrolysis of water pipes in Chicago, July, 1911. Administration of the office of recorder of Cook County, September, 1911. Plea for publicity in the office of county treasurer, October, 1911. The judges and the county fee offices, December, 1911. The park governments of Chicago, December, 1911. Merriam commission reports: The water works system of Chicago; bureau of streets, civil service commission and special assessment accounting system of Chicago.

⁂

Public Lectures in New York and Chicago.—The department of education of the city of New York has published an interesting report on the extensive system of public lectures conducted by the department for the year 1910–11, with outlines of courses of lectures and illustration.

The council for library and museum extension have published a pamphlet on educational opportunities in Chicago, and a list of public lectures in Chicago for the season 1911–12. Copies may be obtained from the president or secretary of the council, N. H. Carpenter, the Art Institute, and Aksel G. S. Johnson, the John Crerar Library.

⁂

Street Lighting.—Bulletin 51 of the University of Illinois Engineering Experiment Station is a monograph on street lighting, by J. M. Bryant and H. G. Hake of the electrical engineering department in the university. This considers the general methods for the production of light, systems of distribution, photometry and illumination, lighting for various classes of streets and cost of operation. The information is presented in a form to be understood by the general public, without requiring special technical knowledge; and the bulletin should be of value in framing ordinances and contracts for street lighting systems.

⁂

Sewage Disposal in New York.—The metropolitan sewerage commission of New York City has issued a preliminary report discussing several plans and suggestions for disposing of the sewage of the Greater New York without causing serious pollution of the harbor or nuisance to the resorts along the New Jersey and Long Island shores. The various plans considered included the discharge at sea by outfall sewers extending several miles from shore; application of sewage to farm lands, and sedimentation and biological treatment; estimates of cost amount to about $140,000,000.

⁂

Municipal Documents.—The bulletin of the New York Public Library for January, 1912, contains a bibliography of recent accessions of city documents. The New York Public Library now has the largest and most valuable collection of municipal documents in the United States; and the publication of additions to this collection from time to time will be of much service to students of municipal problems throughout the country. In the list now published descriptive notes are appended to the titles of many of the more important reports.

⁂

Cleveland Vice Commission.—The vice commission of the Cleveland (Ohio) Baptist Brotherhood, appointed in May, 1911, has published a brief report. This discusses the financial status of the liquor traffic in Cleveland, the law and the saloon, social vice and public amusements. Comparative tables for the eighteen largest cities in the United States are published, showing statistics in regard to the police, arrests, saloons, public amusements, divorces and professional prostitutes.

⁂

Philadelphia City Club.—The City Club of Philadelphia has bound volumes of its bulletins for the past four years, volumes 1 and 2 being bound together, and also volumes 3 and 4. These bound volumes bring together a considerable amount of interesting information, including numerous addresses delivered before the Philadelphia City Club on a large variety of municipal problems by experts from all parts of the country.

⁂

Woman's Municipal League of New York.—The year book of this organization for 1911 contains a number of valuable reports of committees and branches. The legislative committee presents the results of an inquiry into the medical examination of prostitutes in the United States. Beatrice L. Stevenson reports on working girls' life at Coney Island. Other committee reports deal with dance halls, motion pictures and a variety of additional topics.

⁂

Virginia Charities.—The third annual report of the state board of charities and corrections to the governor of Virginia for the year 1911, contains reports on municipal and county almshouses and outdoor relief, and on private charitable institutions and organizations, and also the addresses and discussions at the child welfare conference held at Richmond, Va., May 22–25, 1911.

⁂

Hartford Streets.—Bulletin 9 of the publications of the Municipal Art Society of Hartford, Conn., gives a history of Hartford streets, their names, origin and dates of use, prepared for the committee on parks and thoroughfares and playgrounds.

⁂

Massachusetts Civic League.—In the annual report of this association for 1911, attention is called to housing problems and playgrounds conditions.

CURRENT MUNICIPAL LEGISLATION

EDITED BY JOHN A. LAPP[1]

Legislative Reference Department of the Indiana State Library

PART I—REVIEW OF CERTAIN FEATURES OF STATE LEGISLATION FOR 1911 AFFECTING MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT.[2]

Alabama.—In addition to the legislation noticed in the January issue of the REVIEW, several laws of importance were passed. One[3] prohibits municipalities from charging as a license fee more than 2 per cent of the gross receipts of public utilities and permitting this intangible tax as an offset on the tax on tangible property. It is said that this has largely decreased the taxes of various public service corporations in Birmingham. Other laws provide for civil service in police departments in cities over 25,000[4]; permit the pensioning of police and firemen in cities over 25,000;[5] authorize[6] street railways to furnish free or reduced transportation to police, firemen and sanitary officers and to grant a reduced rate to school children; authorize[7] cities of 100,000 to control viaducts and subways in order to remedy grade crossing dangers; create a juvenile court for cities of 100,000;[8] and in cities of 100,000[9] provide for collection of taxes by the county tax collector, thus abolishing the city tax collector.

Indiana.—Indiana cities are divided under the general municipal code into five classes. The first three classes are based on population; the fourth and fifth classes, on population and assessed valuation. All legislation is general, but care has not been taken to make all laws conform to the classification. Frequently laws are passed applying to cities having a population differing from that of the established classes of cities. Their validity has not been fully determined by the courts though many absurd classifications with small differences have been declared void.

The legislature of 1911 passed many acts relating to cities, but none of wide general significance touching the form of municipal government. Three important measures, the referendum on municipal franchises; commission government; and a street paving bill putting the cost of paving intersections on the abutting property holders, were defeated—the first after one of the bitterest fights of the session.

The measures which were enacted include two relating to schools; the Terre Haute school law,[10] making the school commissioners elective by the people. This law was passed first in 1909, but the census of 1910 took Terre Haute out of the classification and left the law with no application to any city. A second school measure[11] was that enabling Indianapolis to take over and conduct the Winona trades school which had been run as a private institution and to levy a special tax for the purpose. The park law of 1909 which created a board of park commissioners for cities of the first class with rather wide powers was extended to cities of the second class.[1] A new playground law[2] was enacted for cities of the first class putting the control of playgrounds under the city board of health and charities and requiring the council to levy a special tax for their support.

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[1] Mr. Arthur Crosby Ludington, who edited the department of legislation in the first issue of the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, has been compelled by reason of a change in his duties and obligations to relinquish the charge of the department, greatly to the regret of his colleagues. We are fortunate, however, in being able to announce as his successor, Mr. John A. Lapp, legislative reference librarian of the Indiana state library and editor of *Special Libraries*. Mr. Lapp is admirably fitted both by training and deep interest to make this department a striking contribution to literature of municipal advance and to the whole subject of comparative municipal legislation.

[2] The summary of legislation by states supplements the reviews published in the January issue of the REVIEW and with the exception of some legislation in five or six other states which will be noticed in general summaries in a later issue, these reviews cover the field of state legislation in 1911.

[3] No. 216.

[4] No. 341.

[5] No. 678.

[6] No. 526.

[7] No. 289.

[8] No. 475.

[9] No. 155.

[10] Ch. 147.

[11] Ch. 63—March 1.

Track elevation or depression which had already been provided for in Indianapolis and Fort Wayne was extended by special classification to South Bend.[3] The Fort Wayne law was amended to conform to the new federal census.[4] The South Bend law makes the cost payable, seventy-five per cent by the railroad and twenty-five per cent by the city. If a street railway is on the street the company pays 10 per cent and the city 15 per cent.

Two other measures are the weights and measures law[5] and the amendment to the uniform public accounting law.[6] The first makes the state food and drug commissioner the state commissioner of weights and measures and authorizes the appointment of city and county deputies. The significance of this law is the centralization of control in the state department.

The uniform accounting law applying to all offices, state and local, which was the triumph of the 1909 session was supplemented to secure better collection of shortages. It is made the duty of the attorney general and prosecuting attorneys of the counties to institute the necessary proceedings to collect the shortages disclosed. The new law grants a hearing to officials found short in their accounts before publicity is given to the findings. The old law allowed all findings to be made public at once and resulted in many injustices to accused officials.

Kansas.—Judges, clerks and marshals of cities were made elective at the time of state and county elections.[7] This was made necessary by a recent decision[8] declaring that officers of city courts are county officers. City councils in cities of over 40,000 were authorized[9] to provide additional street lighting, the equipment to be paid for by the property owners and operated by the city. Power was also given to all cities to treat streets with oil on petition of property owners, the cost to be assessed against the abutting property owners as in paving and the intersection to be paid for by the city.[10] Cities of second and third classes may pave intervening streets between parallel paved streets and levy a special amount.[11]

A. C. Dykstra.

* * *

Michigan.—Pursuant to the provisions of Article 8, sections 20 and 21,[12] of the constitution of 1908, the legislature of 1909 passed what is known as the "Home Rule" act,[13] which permits any city in the state to frame, adopt and amend its own charter.

It was supposed, when the act was originally passed, in 1909, that it conferred upon the cities the power to amend existing charters, that is, charters granted by the legislature, but the supreme court has held that that was impossible.[14] An amendment to the law was made by the legislature in 1911[1] to correct this error, but the supreme court has recently held this amendment unconstitutional,[2] thereby withholding from the cities the right to amend charters other than those which they have of themselves framed and adopted.

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[1] Ch. 231—March 6.

[2] Ch. 153—March 4.

[3] Ch. 128—March 4.

[4] Ch. 143—March 4.

[5] Ch. 263—March 6.

[6] Ch. 116—March 3.

[7] 1911, ch. 96.

[8] 1911, 82 Kansas, 190.

[9] 1911, ch. 82.

[10] 1911, ch. 121.

[11] 1911, ch. 123.

[12] Sec. 20. The legislature shall provide by a general law for the incorporation of cities, and by a general law for the incorporation of villages; such general laws shall limit their rate of taxation for municipal purposes, and restrict their powers of borrowing money and contracting debts.

Sec. 21. Under such general laws, the electors of each city and village shall have power and authority to frame, adopt and amend its charter, and, through its regularly constituted authority, to pass all laws and ordinances relating to its municipal concerns, subject to the constitution and general laws of the state.

[13] Act No. 279, P.A. 1909.

[14] Attorney General v. Common Council of Detroit, 64 Mich. 369.

A city desiring to revise its present charter, or frame a new charter,[3] may do so in the following manner: When its legislative body shall by a two-thirds vote declare for a general revision of the charter, or when a petition signed by 25 per cent of the qualified electors shall be presented therefor, the question of having a general charter revision shall be submitted to the electors for adoption or rejection at the next general or municipal election, or at a special election. In case the electors shall, by a majority vote, declare in favor of such revision, a charter commission shall be selected, consisting of one elector from each ward and three electors at large, having a residence of at least three years in the municipality. No city officer or employe shall be eligible to a place on said commission. All names of candidates for charter commissioners shall be placed on one ballot without party affiliations designated; the candidate having the greatest number of votes in each ward shall be declared elected, and the three candidates-at-large having the greatest number of votes cast in the city shall be declared elected. The legislative body of the municipality shall fix, in advance, of the election of such charter commission, the place of its meeting, the compensation of its members, and provide the money for the expenses thereof.

The charter when framed under this act *shall* provide for a mayor and a body vested with legislative power, for the election or appointment of such officers as may be deemed necessary, for the levy and collection of taxes, for a system of accounting which shall conform to a uniform system required by law, and that subjects for taxation for municipal purposes shall be the same as for state, county and school purposes under the general law; and generally for such incidental matters as are usually included in such charters.

Each city *may* provide for annually levying taxes to the extent of not more than 2 per cent, and for borrowing money to the extent of not more than 8 per cent of the assessed valuation of all the property of the city, with certain limits as to the exercise of this borrowing power; and it may provide for owning and operating transportation facilities if it has a population of 25,000 or more; and any city may provide for purchasing franchises of light, gas, waterworks and power companies, and it may provide for a system of civil service and many other incidental matters pertaining to the government of cities generally.

Such cities have no power under the act to increase the rate of taxation now fixed by law, except upon a majority vote of the electors and then only to 2 per cent per annum, nor to submit a new charter more often than once in two years after first one is adopted, nor to change the salary of any public official during his term of office, nor shorten his term, nor to adopt a charter unless approved by a majority of the electors, nor to issue bonds without providing a sinking fund for the redemption of the same.

It is provided that such city may through its regularly constituted authority pass all laws and ordinances relating to its municipal affairs subject to the constitution and general laws of the state, with the exceptions above noted.

This act was amended in 1911 in several respects and particularly for the purpose of permitting such cities to adopt the initiative, referendum and recall, but, as shown above, some of the provisions of this amendatory act have already been declared unconstitutional and the constitutionality of the entire act is now before the court.

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[1] Act No. 203, P.A. 1911.

[2] Attorney General ex rel. Vernor v. Detroit Common Council, 18 *Det. Legal News*, 914; 133 N.W. 1090. See also Department of Events and Personalia under the head "Judicial Decisions."

[3] The supreme court has held that the general revision of a granted charter has the same effect as the framing of an entirely new charter. Attorney General v. Common Council, 164 Mich. 369.

George L. Clark.

* * *

New York.—Municipal legislation in New York is both special and general and the yearly output is enormous. The 1911 session passed fifty-three acts relating to Greater New York; thirty-five to Buffalo; one hundred two to other cities, and thirty-nine to villages, making a total of 229 special laws for the government of cities. In addition thirty-two laws applied to the different classes of cities as defined by the statutes.

Space forbids detailed examination of the numerous acts passed. Most of these were minor amendments of little general interest except as showing the futility of state legislation on the details of city action. Some acts of general interest are here given. One of the most important being a constitutional amendment granting home rule to cities. This must pass the legislature before being presented to the people.

Court proceeding is provided for determining the legality of doubtful bond issues and legalizing such issues where the requirements of the statute have been substantially complied with.[1] This does away with a dangerous kind of legislation which is also prevalent in other states, namely, special legalizing acts. Statistics of taxation, revenue and debt are to be furnished by all municipalities to the state comptroller and an abstract is to be published in his report.[2] This is a step toward uniform and comparable statistics by the method originally followed in Massachusetts and Rhode Island. The commissioner of labor is required to prepare an annual industrial directory giving facts of the advantages for manufacturing in the state.[3]

Building inspection was extended in cities over 175,000 to cover inspection of plastering by the building department.[4] Sale of coal by weight was required in all cities except New York.[5] This law formerly applied to all cities over 50,000.

A law of special significance because of the long agitation for it, is the three platoon police law.[6] This requires three shifts of eight hours each for the police department. Inebriate asylums were authorized in all cities[7] similar to that already authorized for New York City. Operators of moving picture shows must be licensed under a new law.[8] Appropriations were authorized to continue the annual conference of officials of second and third class cities to promote economy and efficiency in their governments.[9]

New charters were granted to Amsterdam,[10] Lockport,[11] Oneida,[12] and Watervliet.[13] Several charters introducing the commission form of government were brought forth; one for Mt. Vernon passed the senate but not the assembly; one for the city of Beacon, passed both houses but was vetoed by Governor Dix on the ground that a uniform optional law on this plan should be enacted for all cities if at all.

Two special acts relating to New York City are: the fire prevention amendment[14] and the equal pay for equal work law applying to teachers, making the salaries of women equal to men for similar work.[15] This law was enacted after several years' attempts. It was passed in the administration of Governor Hughes but was vetoed by him.[16]

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[1] Ch. 573.

[2] Ch. 119.

[3] Ch. 565.

[4] Ch. 156.

[5] Ch. 825.

[6] Ch. 360.

[7] Ch. 700.

[8] Ch. 252.

[9] Ch. 622.

[10] Ch. 242.

[11] Ch. 870.

[12] Ch. 648.

[13] Ch. 000.

[14] Ch. 899.

[15] Ch. 902.

[16] The information on which this summary is based was furnished by Lawrence A. Ianger of New York City.

North Dakota.—An act was passed by the legislature in 1911 giving the city council or commissioners of any city the power to prescribe by ordinance the maximum rates and charges for the "service, commodity or utility furnished by any person, firm or corporation exercising a franchise, right, license or privilege in or to any street, highway, alley or public place of such city."[1] Rates and charges so fixed must be reasonable, and when so fixed may not be altered by the municipality more than once in five years. Before prescribing rates and charges notice must be given to the person, firm or corporation whose rates and charges are affected, and they must be allowed a reasonable opportunity to be heard in the matter. At such hearing the city council or commission may, by resolution, require the production of accounts, records and vouchers. All rates and charges so fixed are to be held prima facie just and reasonable, if their validity is contested, but the question of reasonableness may be adjudicated in the courts.

This act does not apply to corporations under the control of the state railroad commission which supervises street railway companies and telephone companies.[2]

I. A. Acker.

* * *

Rhode Island.—Since Rhode Island is governed under a system of special legislation, only two acts of a general nature directly affecting municipalities appear in the laws of 1911. Under one of these[3] cities and towns are permitted to expend specified sums for celebrations and other public occasions. The other[4] provides that cities and towns, which in this state have the custody of land and probate records, must under penalty provide fire-proof receptacles for records and documents. Enforcement is by the state record commissioner.

Among the special acts, two[5] are concerned with details of organization, while a considerable number make grants of power to issue bonds for specific purposes. Among laws granting powers are acts to extend the authority of the board of health of Newport to include the inspection of perishable food-stuffs;[6] to permit Cranston to enact building ordinances,[7] and to allow Providence to establish and maintain playgrounds. The line of demarcation between the functions of town councils and town meetings has never been clearly defined. The controversy is settled so far as Warwick is concerned by an act giving to the council of that town power to appoint all officers not otherwise specifically provided for and to expend all appropriations made by the town meeting.[8]

In consequence of a system of village incorporation there appears an act incorporating a "lighting district" in one of the villages of the state.[9] The district has power to contract with a private company for electricity or to establish a municipal plant to serve public and private uses. The district meeting may lay taxes, make by-laws and elect a moderator, clerk, treasurer, collector and three assessors.

Following precedents already established, two practically identical acts provide boards of police commissioners for the city of Woonsocket[10] and the town of Warwick.[11] The board consists of three members, one of whom retires each year. The first incumbents are to be appointed by the governor, but their successors are to be elected by the mayor and council in one case and by the electors in the other. The powers conferred on the boards are to appoint, control and remove the chief of police and all officers and employes of the police department and to act as a board of license commissioners in issuing all forms of licenses.

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[1] Prior to 1911 cities did not have this power.

[2] 1911, Ch. 71.

[3] Ch. 658.

[4] Ch. 700.

[5] Ch. 740, 760.

[6] Ch. 754.

[7] Ch. 763.

[8] Ch. 763.

[9] Ch. 741.

[10] Ch. 661.

[11] Ch. 695.

In none of the municipal legislation of the year is there any departure from established precedents.

FRANK G. BATES.

PART II. MUNICIPAL ORDINANCES

Segregation Ordinances.—During the past year a number of cities have passed ordinances providing for the segregation of the races. The purpose of these ordinances is to prevent negroes from moving into streets occupied by white people. Baltimore was the first city to pass such an ordinance and it is popularly known there as the "West ordinance," having been introduced by Councilman West. The first ordinance on the subject was approved by the mayor in December, 1910, but it was held invalid on the ground that the title was defective. It was re-introduced and passed with a few amendments in the early part of 1911. The title of the ordinance is as follows:

> An ordinance for preserving peace, preventing conflict and ill feeling between the white and colored races in Baltimore city and promoting the general welfare of the city by providing, so far as practicable, for the use of separate blocks by white and colored people for residences, churches and schools.

The ordinance makes it unlawful for any colored person to move into or use as a residence any building in a block occupied by white people. It is also made unlawful for any white person to move into a block occupied by colored people.

There is also a provision requiring the applicant for a permit to erect houses, etc., on block where there are no buildings to state whether the houses are to be occupied by white or colored people. In other words, blocks in which there are white and colored people will continue to be "mixed blocks" and white and colored people can continue to move into them until all the occupants are either white or colored, in which event the block will become a "white block" or a "colored block" as the case may be. In the future development of the city, the first buildings erected in a block will determine whether the block will be "white" or colored." If a majority of the property owners of the block protest against the making of a "white" or "colored" block which has not yet been occupied, then the permit will be denied. A section of the ordinance also makes it possible for a majority of the owners to either real or leasehold property in any block by application in writing to the inspector of buildings to exempt said block from the application of the section relating to blocks entirely "white" or "colored." The ordinance also prohibits the use of any building as a church or for religious services or as a school by whites in a colored block or by negroes in a white block. There is a penalty of from $5 to $50 for each day the ordinance is violated. The present ordinance has not been passed upon by the courts.

Norfolk, Va., passed a segregation ordinance in June, 1911, and this ordinance was declared unconstitutional by the police justices. An appeal was taken to a higher court and the question has not been finally passed upon. The Norfolk ordinance does not go so much into detail as the Baltimore ordinance, but merely prohibits the occupation or use as a residence, church, school, or place of public meeting or assembly, of any building or premises on a white block by negroes or on a colored block by the whites.

If a majority of the front feet on a block is actually occupied or used by negroes, the block is a colored block and the same rule applies for a white block. The ordinance provides, however, that it is not to interfere with the continued occupation or use of any property in the manner in which it is occupied or used at the date of its passage.

Two other cities of Virginia, Richmond and Ashland, have passed ordinances on the subject very similar to the Baltimore and Norfolk ordinances.

An ordinance following very closely the Baltimore ordinance has been introduced in the Municipal Assembly of St. Louis. There is an indication that the St. Louis ordinance will be made a little more stringent than the Baltimore ordinance, by not continuing as a mixed block, those blocks in which both white and colored live. Those living in such blocks would be allowed to continue to reside there, but negroes could not move into a block in which a majority of the houses are occupied by whites, and vice versa.

In all of the ordinances, an exception is made in regard to domestic servants residing with their employers.

Horace E. Flack.

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Harrisburg, Pa.—An ordinance was recently adopted which makes it possible for the state to go ahead with the idea of improving the approaches to the state capitol. An act of the legislature provided that condemnation proceedings in a limited way, could be undertaken, for making an enlargement of the park about the capitol building in the direction of the Pennsylvania Railroad. This action however, on the part of a commission created for the purpose, was contingent upon vacation by the city of the streets included in the territory involved. The ordinance abovementioned accomplishes this result, and steps are thus now definitely taken toward adding some twenty-three acres to the capitol park, and making available to those who pass on the Pennsylvania Railroad, a beautiful view of the new capitol.

J. Horace McFarland.

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Portland, Maine, adopted in January an ordinance regulating the purchasing of supplies. Under its terms no supplies or articles of any description may be purchased and no indebtedness contracted unless by written order on a regular requisition blank provided by the city. This requisition must be itemized as to quantity and quality, must be signed by the person purchasing the articles, and be approved in writing by the mayor. The ordinance further imposes rigid requirements concerning the form of the bills of persons supplying goods and materials, and forbids the treasurer to pay such bill unless presented in the required form with requisition attached and unless it has the further written approval of the auditor.

Clarence W. Peabody.

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Cincinnati, Ohio.—A codification of Cincinnati ordinances, known as ordinance no. 2585, was passed on April 21, 1911. The principal parts of the ordinance relate to the organization and employes of the several departments of the city government, the building code, general regulations relating to street railroads, steam railroads, wires for light, power and alarm companies, and general miscellaneous regulations. The special ordinances granting franchises, etc., are not included.

R. E. Miles.

PART III. SUMMARY OF LEGISLATION ON PARTICULAR FEATURES

The Civil Service.—During the legislative sessions of 1911, ten states, Alabama, Connecticut, Illinois, Iowa, Massachusetts, Montana, New Jersey, Tennessee, Wisconsin and Indiana, passed laws designed to introduce civil service regulations into the public business of the various municipalities of these commonwealths or to extend their application where they already existed. In general, the operation of these laws was extended so as to include the following municipal officials: The officers and members of the police and fire departments; subordinate city officers, assistants and employees; minor municipal court officers including deputy clerks and deputy bailiffs; employees in park departments; and city laborers and artisans and city marshals. Ample provision was made for the suspension, promotion, discharge or removal of delinquents and offenders; for the preferring, hearing and determination of charges; for a system of examinations to test the qualifications of applicants; and for the creation and maintenance of eligible and emergency lists consisting of those attaining to a predetermined minimum mark. Most of the laws provide that employees may be dismissed only for misconduct, incapacity, inefficiency, insubordination or disobedience and may under no circumstances be cashiered for political or religious affiliations or predelictions. The solicitation or reception of assessments, subscriptions or contributions in money or service from members of the classified service for any political party or organization is forbidden.

Alabama.—The legislature of Alabama has placed the officers and members of the police departments of all cities of that commonwealth having a population of 25,000 or more under civil service regulations. The act provides for no board of civil service commissioners, but the city council, city commission, city board or other governing body is authorized to exercise the functions usually conferred upon such commissioners.[1]

Connecticut.—The Connecticut law is in the nature of an enabling act whereby any political subdivision of the state may adopt the merit system by submitting the question to a vote of the qualified electors. The act provides for the appointment and removal and prescribes the duties of a board of three civil service commissioners. Elective officers, officers responsible for the policy of a department, one deputy and a private secretary are specifically exempted from the test and competition. Pupils in training schools may be classified as apprentices subject to promotion. All appointments are made for probation periods, at the end of which time the candidate may be peremptorily discharged.[1]

Illinois.—The legislature of Illinois extended the civil service regulations to all officers, assistants and employees of cities and villages which have previously adopted or may subsequently adopt the civil service act of 1895, except elective officers, the heads or sub-heads of important departments, and other prominent municipal officials.[2] And likewise to all officers and members of the fire and police departments, including the chiefs, in cities having a population of from 7000 to 100,000, and who have adopted the act of 1903 providing for the appointment of a board of fire and police commissioners;[3] to the deputy clerks, deputy bailiffs and other subordinate officers and employees in the municipal court of the city of Chicago;[4] to all officers and employees in any park district having or subsequently acquiring 150,000 inhabitants or more, except the office of park commissioner, all elective officers, a general superintendent, attorneys and one confidential clerk;[5] and to all city laborers and artisans when employed on any public work or improvement the cost of which exceeds $500.[6]

Indiana.—An act passed by the general assembly of Indiana and approved March 6, 1911, concerning weights and measures, provides that only those persons are eligible to appointment to the position of city sealer who were employed as city sealers of weights and measures at the time of the passage of this act, or who have had recent experience in the duties of a sealer, or who have passed a satisfactory examination given by the state commissioner of weights and measures.[1]

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[1] Laws 1911, p. 681.

[1] Laws 1911, p. 1480.

[2] Laws 1911, p. 139.

[3] Laws 1911, p. 139.

[4] Laws 1911, p. 257.

[5] Laws 1911, p. 211.

[6] Laws 1911, p. 637.

Iowa.—By virtue of an act of April 13, 1911, the functions of the various civil service commissions of the cities of Iowa were considerably enlarged at the expense of the respective city councils. The appointment of the chief of the fire department and subordinates in the fire and police departments was placed in the hands of the commission. Honorably discharged soldiers, sailors or marines of the regular or volunteer army or navy of the United States, if otherwise qualified, are given preference in appointments, an advantage already conferred in cities of the first class in the police and fire forces.[2]

Massachusetts.—Massachusetts, by four specific acts, both strengthened her civil service law and extended its application. A provision in a former law requiring that the examination of applicants for employment as laborers shall relate to their capacity for labor and their habits of sobriety and industry and to the necessities of themselves and their families was stricken out.[3] Henceforth all answers of applicants to questions in examinations relating to training and experience, outside the labor service, must be under oath if the commissioners require it.[4] No question may be asked in an application or examination requiring a statement as to any offense committed before the applicant reached the age of sixteen years, except in the case of applicants for police and prison service.[5] The provisions of the civil service act were extended to the superintendent, chief of police or city marshal of all cities except Boston and in all towns which have or may hereafter accept the provisions of that act.[6]

Montana.—The civil service laws of Montana pertain to any city having a commission form of government, and any city of the commonwealth may abandon its present organization at any time and adopt the commission form. The act is designed to apply to all appointive officers and employees of such cities except the departmental heads. The act provides for a board of civil service commissioners of 3 members, who are required to test the qualifications of applicants and supply an eligible list to the city council.[7]

New Jersey.—New Jersey passed three amendatory civil service acts. The competitive class is made to include all positions in the classified service for which it is practicable to determine the merit and fitness of applicants by competitive examinations. A "sectional eligible list" is provided for, to supply positions wherein a special acquaintance with a municipality or section of the state is necessary. The commission is authorized to admit citizens of other states to examination when the position for which the examination is held is of such character as to require special technical training and specialization in a line of work for which candidates are not readily obtainable and when suitable candidates from New Jersey are not forthcoming.[8]

Tennessee and Wisconsin.—Tennessee and Wisconsin amended, strengthened and clarified their laws, but made no important additions.[9]

CHARLES KETTLEBOROUGH.

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State Public Utility Commissions.—The legislation affecting municipal utilities through the establishment of state public service commissions or the extension of the power of the railroad commission over such utilities, was extensive during 1911, following the lead of Massachusetts, New York, Wisconsin, Vermont, Maryland and New Jersey which had previously established such control.

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[1] Laws 1911, p. 185.

[2] Laws 1911, p. 38.

[3] Laws 1911, p. 39.

[4] Laws 1911, p. 392.

[5] Laws 1911, p. 71.

[6] Laws 1911, p. 343.

[7] Laws 1911, p. 108.

[8] Laws 1911, p. 35.

[9] Laws of Wisconsin 1911, p. 669. Laws of Tennessee, 1911 p. 1184.

The new laws follow in general the laws previously enacted giving power to investigate equipment, rates and service and fix reasonable rates, standards of equipment and service.

Connecticut.—The Connecticut[1] law was enacted after a prolonged struggle covering several years during which a special commission made an investigation of the whole subject. The law applies to telephone, telegraph, gas and electric companies supplying heat light and power, water companies, and street railways, besides the common carriers which had been subject to the railroad commission and by the law transferred to the new commission. The law does not apply to municipal plants.

Kansas.[2]—The new law of Kansas, applies to telephones, except mutuals; telegraphs; pipe lines except those less than 15 miles long; gas and electric companies supplying heat, light and power; water companies and street railways. The law does not apply to municipal utilities. The power to regulate and control public utilities operated wholly within a municipality is vested in the municipality subject to appeal to the commission. Municipalities may contract for prices and service and may require extensions and additions. An important provision is that requiring that grants of franchises shall be subject to approval by the commission. Approval is necessary from the commission that public necessity requires the granting of a franchise before it can be granted.

New Hampshire.[3]—The law applies to telegraph and telephone; gas and electric companies supplying heat, light and power; water companies; ferries; toll bridges and street railways. It does not apply to municipal plants.

Nevada.—In Nevada[4] the law applies to gas and electric companies furnishing heat, light, power; water and sewage companies. The law does not apply to street railways. The railroad commission law of 1907 extended to other common carriers and to telegraph and telephone lines.

New Jersey.—The New Jersey law of 1910 was repealed in 1911 and a comprehensive measure was passed.[5] The law of 1910 gave little power except that of inspection of facilities and service and recommendation. The new law applies to street railways, traction lines, canals, subways, pipe lines, gas, electric light, heat, power, water, oil, sewage, telephones and telegraphs. Extraordinary power is granted to the commission with respect to franchises. No franchise may be granted except on approval of the commission.

Ohio.[6]—The Ohio law affects telegraphs, telephones, gas and electrical companies supplying heat, light and power, pipe lines, water works, steam heating and refrigerating companies. messenger and electric signalling companies and street railways. The law does not apply to municipal plants. Municipal corporations may fix rates subject to appeal to the commission by the public or the companies. City council may require and determine extension and additions.

Oregon.[7]—The law of Oregon was suspended by a referendum petition and will be voted on in November, 1912. It proposes to regulate street railways; gas and electric companies supplying heat, light and power; water; telegraph and telephone companies which serve the public either directly or indirectly. Municipal plants are not subject to the law.

Washington.[8]—The law in Washington affects street railways; gas; electric light; power; telegraph; telephone; water docks warehouse companies and to vessels used in transportation. The commission may not fix rates or service or pass upon the reasonableness of facilities and regulations of municipally owned plants but in other respects the municipal plants are subject to the commission.

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[1] Laws 1911, ch. 128.

[2] Laws 1911, ch. 238.

[3] Laws 1911, ch. 164.

[4] Laws 1911, ch. 162.

[5] Laws 1911, ch. 195.

[6] Laws 1911, p. 549.

[7] Laws 1911, ch. 279.

[8] Laws 1911, ch. 117.

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Legislative Investigations.—The legislatures of different statesin 1911 directed investigations to be made by special commissions or administrative officers, of many subjects of direct or related interest to municipalities.

Massachusetts provided for a special commission on cold storage, another commission is directed to report a metropolitan plan to coördinate civic development in Boston and vicinity.[1] The railroad commission is to report on commutation tickets and practices, and on the equipment of street railways with fenders and wheel guards. In coöperation with the Boston transit commission the railroad commission will report on the transporation system of Boston. An ex-officio board of commissioners will look into the state engineering expense and organization. The director of the bureau of statistics is to report on the indebtedness and finance of cities and towns, and the state board of education will report on teachers pensions, high school education, state aid for schools and industrial education in textiles and part time schools.

New York has a commission on food stuffs, their price, purity, production, distribution and consumption; another on the condition under which manufacturing is carried on in first and second class cities; and another looking into the charges of corrupt government in Albany city and county.

Pennsylvania provided for commissions to report on the building laws and conditions; election laws; and recording titles to property.

Illinois has a commissions investigating building laws; regulation of public utilities, and fire and old age insurance; Connecticut, on taxation of railways and street railways; Georgia on uniform methods of local government; Wisconsin on school book prices and situation, and fire insurance rates and classification; Michigan and Oregon, Iowa, Rhode Island and Utah on a general reform of taxation, and Oregon on election and registration laws.

New York, New Jersey and the United States government have a joint committee on the port conditions and pier extension in New York harbor.

Ohio—One Per Cent Tax Law.—The last general assembly of the state of Ohio passed a bill which has seriously affected the financial affairs of the cities of this state. It is popularly known as the Smith 1 per cent tax measure. By its terms the aggregate amount of taxes that can be levied on the taxable property in any taxing district for the year 1911, and any year thereafter, cannot exceed the amount collected during the year 1910. The maximum rate was fixed at 10 mills on each dollar of tax valuation. Exception is made for the addition of levies for the sinking fund and interest purposes. Certain limits are fixed for the aggregate of taxes levied, being 5 mills on taxable property in the municipal corporations.

Provision is made for a budget commission, consisting of the county auditor, the mayor of the largest municipality in the county, and the prosecuting attorney. This commission considers the budgets which are submitted by all the boards authorized by law to levy taxes. If the budgets are too high, they are cut down by the commission. Any item can be revised downward, but none can be increased. When the commission determines that the taxes to be collected will meet the budget, the fact is certified to the county auditor.

Another section of this law provides that the appropriations made by the various boards, as the city council, cannot be voted until the money is actually in the treasury. If it is found that the money raised is not sufficient to meet the expense of the taxing district, at the next election, the people can vote to increase the levy.

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[1] See article of John Nolen, page 231.

The rate provided in this law has been made possible by a re-valuation of the real estate of the state, the effort being to return it at *full* value for taxation. The tax commission has also made extensive increases in the values of property of corporations.

The great difficulty encountered under this law has been to keep the appropriations and expenses within the amount of money available. No expansion, no growth, no development, no increase can occur because of the fixed limit.

Charles Wells Reeder.
Ohio State University Library.

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Uniform Public Accounting for Municipalities.—State systems of uniform public accounting for city and other local offices as well as the state offices and institutions, continued to make progress during 1911.

California[1] established a uniform accounting system under the state board of control. For local uniform accounting the board appoints a superintendent of accounts who with two assistants, constitute the executive force. They are required to install and supervise a uniform system of accounts and reports for all officers and persons in the state who have the control or custody of public money or its equivalent. The examiners may require reports and information and may inspect and audit the books at any time. All expenses are borne by the state.

Michigan[2] established a uniform system of accounts in state offices and institutions and in county offices but the law does not apply to cities and towns.

In Wisconsin[3] the tax commission was given authority to require reports from cities, villages, towns, and counties, on blanks prepared by the commission. On request by any local government, the commission must install a system of uniform accounts and when established, it must be continued in force. The commission may, on request or on its own motion, audit the accounts of any village, town or city. All expenses of installation or audit are to be paid by the local unit.

Utah[4] provided for a state examiner for state accounts but did not extend his authority to municipalities.

Nevada.[5] The state board of examiners, boards of county commissioners of counties, board of trustees or other governing body of municipalities are required to audit accounts of all offices, having to do with public funds, once a year and they may employ an expert accountant for the work. The report of the accountant is to be laid before the grand jury for investigation.

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[1] 1911, ch. 349.

[2] 1911, no. 183.

[3] 1911, ch. 523.

[4] 1911, ch. 112.

[5] 1911, ch. 135.

EVENTS AND PERSONALIA

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I. STRUCTURE OF GOVERNMENT

Municipal Home Rule.—The chief interest of the Ohio conference centered in the question of municipal home rule. The Municipal Association of Cleveland, ten days before the conference convened, sent to each of the delegates copies of its report on "Constitutional Home Rule for Ohio Cities," in which the committee strongly urged the fullest grant of local self-government to the cities of the state in the new constitution. In the Columbus conference there was not a dissenting vote on the question of home rule. The following resolutions were unanimously adopted:

> Whereas, the cities of Ohio have throughout their history been completely dependent upon the state legislature, and have been constantly interfered with in the conduct of their purely local affairs, and, as such dependence and interference is not only detrimental to the best interest of the cities, but consumes the time of the legislature which should be devoted to the larger problems of state government, and whereas the most effective remedy thus far proposed for these defects in our system of state control has been the principal of local self government, as adopted and in force in eight states of the Union, therefore, be it
>
> Resolved, that this conference expresses its firm belief that the only effective and permanent relief for our cities from the evils of legislative interference is to be found in the adoption of the principle of municipal home rule; and be it further
>
> Resolved, that we respectfully and earnestly request the constitutional convention to incorporate into the new constitution provisions whereby the authority to frame their own charters and to exercise the fullest power of local self government will be granted to the cities; and that a committee of fifteen be appointed by the chairman to appear before the proper committee of the convention and advocate the incorporation of the following sections, as expressing the views of the conference on the provisions which should be made for the government of cities and villages in the new constitution.

A committee of twenty was appointed to frame the specific provisions which the conference would recommend to the Constitutional Convention. Prof. A. R. Hatton of Western Reserve University, was made chairman of the committee. Two reports were submitted: the majority report as recommended by Professor Hatton and the delegates from Cleveland, and the minority report as advocated by A. Julius Freiberg and the Cincinnati delegates. There was no difference of view on the question of home rule; the only difference was as to the wording of the provisions. The discussion on the majority and minority reports occupied most of two sessions of the Conference. Professor Hatton defended the majority report and Mr. Freiberg the minority. The majority report was accepted, section by section, by the vote of all the delegates, except the Cincinnati delegation. A committee of fifteen was appointed by the conference, and according to arrangement previously made, went before the municipal committee of the constitutional convention on Thursday afternoon and submitted their plan. The municipal committee indicated full sympathy with the principle of home rule and asked the committee of the conference to submit their provisions in the form of a brief accompanied by short arguments in favor of each particular section.

The provisions as recommended follow somewhat the California plan of permitting cities to frame their own charters either upon the initiative of the legislative authority of the city or petition of 10 per cent of the qualified voters.

The recommendations go further than any home rule provisions yet adopted in any of the states. In section 2 of the draft, the conference attempts to reverse the well established principle that only such powers as are specifically granted can be exercised by a city and asserts the principle that the cities have all powers in local affairs which are not specifically prohibited. The section reads as follows:

> Any city or village may frame and adopt a charter for its own government in the manner prescribed in Section 3, and may exercise thereunder all powers of local self government; but shall be subject to and controlled by the general laws of the state, except in municipal affairs.

The conference recognized the necessity of certain well defined limitations being placed on the power of cities, such as the the power of taxation; the amount of indebtedness which the municipality may incur; the right of the state to have general supervision over the function of education; and state supervision of accounts. The general impression on the part of the delegates was that the constitutional convention was very favorably inclined toward the conference's recommendations, and that home rule provisions in some form would without doubt be included in the new constitution. The newly organized Ohio Municipal League is already preparing for a campaign in favor of the home rule provisions.

The officers and executive board of the new organization are: President, Newton D. Baker, Cleveland, Mayor; first vice president, Elliot H. Pendleton, Cincinnati; second vice president, F. A. Hartenstein, Youngstown, Mayor; third vice president, J. J. Miller, Springfield, Mayor; fourth vice president, David Gottlieb, Tiffin; secretary-treasurer, Mayo Fesler, Cleveland. Executive board: Brand Whitlock, Toledo, Mayor; F. W. Herbst, Columbus; A. Julius Freiberg, Cincinnati; C. H. Slaughter, Athens, Mayor; W. S. Crandall, Dayton; A. A. Perrine, Mt. Vernon, Mayor.[1]

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Constitutional Reform in Indiana.—The Hon. William Dudley Foulke, of Richmond, Indiana, president of the National Municipal League, addressed the Indianapolis Bar Association on February 7 on "Needed Changes in Our Fundamental Law." He characterized the present constitution as inadequate and obsolete. He said in part:

> "Does Indiana need a revision of its constitution? The majority in the last legislature thought that it did, and one was provided ready-made and pushed through the caucus in a single session and, after some trifling amendments, it was rushed through both bodies of the General Assembly to be submitted to the people at the next general election.
>
> "It was a half-baked document, with some good features and some bad ones. No opportunity was to be given the people to separate desirable provisions from those which were injurious, nor to introduce anything new which might be far more desirable than what was actually incorporated. No sufficient opportunity was given for public debate or modification of the different changes proposed, and the constitution, when submitted, was to be Hobson's choice, 'Take that or nothing.'
>
> "That is not the way a constitution should be revised. Such revision ought to be kept as far as possible out of the domain of party politics. But whether that be done or not the people ought to have the right to take part in each step necessary to the change of the fundamental law.
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> "We have become one of the most Bourbon communities in the American Union," Mr. Foulke said, "and largely because our fundamental law ties us

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[1] From Mayo Fesler, secretary of the Cleveland Municipal Association.

hand and foot and prevents the adoption of measures necessary to our full and free development."

"Today we are in great danger of injury from the special privileges accorded to corporate wealth," he said, "from political manipulations occasioned by imperfect methods of representation, from a system of unjust taxation which protects chiefly the dishonest, from restrictions which withhold from our municipal corporations the necessary means for the development of their local affairs.

"Our old constitution as it stands is obsolete. We need a revision.

"Other states have recognized this need. Outside of New England and New Jersey there is not a state in the American Union which has not a constitution newer than our own, except Wisconsin, and Wisconsin has adopted such radical amendments that her fundamental law has in this manner been brought down to date.

"Here we have tied the hands of our legislature by provisions that make our own progress impossible along any lines. We must either release the fetters or we must impose prescriptions in conformity with our present needs.

Mr. Foulke advocated a provision permitting cities to adopt any form of government they wished, and one to remove the limit on bonded indebtedness so as to allow them to purchase public utilities and to bond these utilities as permitted by the recent Michigan constitution.

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Indiana Federated Commercial Clubs Favor Change in City Government.—A committee representing the Indiana federated commercial clubs, of which T. F. Thieme, of Fort Wayne, is chairman, at a meeting held in Indianapolis approved the draft of a bill which proposes to make a considerable change in the government of cities of the state. Some of the principal features of the proposed bill are: Election of a board of fifteen city councilors to organize city administration for conduct similar to that of a business corporation; selection of a mayor and heads of departments of city government by the board; establishment of a civil service commission; removal of the mayor and the head of any department by a majority vote of the board; mayor and heads of departments to have active charge of the affairs of the city. The bill also provides that any member of the board of councilors may be recalled by a majority vote upon petition of 25 per cent of the voters; legislation may be initiated upon petition of 25 per cent of the voters; and referendum of legislation may be required by petition of 25 per cent of the voters. The committee, however, withheld its approval of these provisions for the initiative referendum and recall.

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Boston's New Charter has so far worked well in the opinion of the Boston finance commission. Its report on the subject concludes with these words:

> The commission believes that those branches of the city's business which have been directly affected by the charter amendments have been improved; that many of the abuses which characterized the operation of the old charter have ceased; that the new system of nominations and elections has worked well; in short, that the value of the charter amendments has been proved.
>
> There is no demand for a reduction of the large powers which the charter amendments give the mayor, and while such large powers exist it would be unwise to remove any of the restraint which the charter amendments have placed upon him.

In defense of the small council elected at large the commission says:

> The provision for a small council elected at large continues to be successful in operation. The council has been a bulwark against improvident long-term contracts for street lighting and refuse disposal. It has carefully guarded the city's financial interests. The old form of general loan bill, passed as a compromise measure, has ceased to exist.
>
> The record of the council in the last two years is a complete refutation of the charge made by its opponents that districts without direct representation would not receive a fair share of local improvements. There has been no discrimination."

This view is shared by the *Monitor*,[1] which in an editorial declared:

> The outcome of the recent election of members of the Boston city council has not ceased to give comfort to civic reformers as the event has receded in time. More than anything that has happened recently, it showed that the balance of power in the city electorate has passed into the hands of non-partisans and that these independents are disposed to use their votes to the best advantage. Coinciding as it did with an equally gratifying display of political insight and poise on the part of voters for candidates for the school board, the verdict gave heart to workers who have often been tempted to fear that Boston might in time come to have a Tammany.
>
> That the outlook for the city's political as well as commercial future is brighter now than in some decades is the belief of veterans fighting in the cause of local democracy; and it is due in part to a new municipal and local patriotism created and fostered by flourishing civic institutions that did not exist when the century dawned and also to a charter that provides a form of government concentrating responsibility and authority and that gives to a finance commission rights of supervision of city administration that make it a medium for censorship such as previous mayors and councilmen never had to undergo.
>
> In its annual report this finance commission, while finding considerable still to be done ere taxpayers and law-abiding citizens are given the full value of their annual revenue, is constrained to admit that methods of administration have been much bettered and officials —elected and appointed—raised in both morale and efficiency.
>
> The mayor, by travel and by study of European standards and methods of city administration, has come to be broader as an executive, and is coöperating much better than during his first administration with all the quasi-governmental agencies of the city molding local evolution. Judging from Boston's experience, a city makes a good investment that insures a study of European urban policies by its mayor. The experience both sobers and inspires; it tones down vaingloriousness and American conceit; it also inspires to action that is above petty politics.

St. Cloud, Minnesota, Commission Government.—The distinguishing feature of the St. Cloud home rule charter is a commission plan with a legislative body separate and distinct from the executive body. The Minnesota constitution, sec. 36, art. 4, contains the following provision: "It shall be a feature of all such charters that there should be provided, among other things, for a mayor or chief magistrate, and a legislative body of either one or two houses." There has been a great deal of dispute among attorneys as to whether or not under this clause there may be a commission or governing body which has both legislative and executive authority.

Mankato and Faribault, Minnesota, both adopted plans providing for a commission of five men, one of whom is the mayor, and gave the commission all the governmental authority of the city both executive and legislative. The Mankato plan has been attacked as unconstitutional and the matter is now pending before the courts.

St. Cloud in order to be within the constitution provided for two distinct bodies. First a commission of three, of which the mayor is one. This commission is the governing body of the city and exercises all the executive and administrative powers of the municipality including all powers of taxation and appropriation. It is the licensing body and it appoints all of the servants of the city except the councilmen and the city justices.

The other body is the council, and its authority is expressly limited to the passing of ordinances. The subjects upon which it can legislate are expressly set forth in the charter and there is an additional limitation to the effect that any ordinance which imposes any limitations upon the commission shall be void. The three commissioners and five councilmen are elected at large. The commissioners receive salaries of $1500 each; the councilmen receive none. The charter also provides for the initiative, referendum, recall, non-partisan primaries and the other essentials of the so-called commission form of government. The city, therefore, has most of the essentials of the commission plan, and at the same time retains the element of a separate legislative body. This is a distinctive feature of the St. Cloud charter, which so far as we know, has not been worked out by any other charter in the country.

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[1] Issue January 25.

St. Cloud is a city of 10,600 population, and the new charter was adopted at a special election held November 28 by a vote of three to one. The first election under the new charter will be held April 1.[1]

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Wisconsin City Commission Government Law.—In an analytical pamphlet, John T. Kennedy, of Madison, Wis., points out the unusual features of the laws of Wisconsin relative to commission government for cities, some of which he regards as dangerous. Those features to which he makes special reference are: the unusually small number of commissioners, three instead of five, seven or nine; length of their term of office, which is fixed at six years; inability of any one to be a commissioner who has a profession or business which he is unwilling to give up; summary power of removal by a majority vote of the commissioners of all officers and assistants as well as all members of all boards of the city government; no provision for a civil service commission or an adequate recognition of the merit idea in appointments; no adequate provision for financial publicity; authority to act secretly whenever the commission desires it; referendum optional with the commission; absence of bond requirement for a faithful discharge of duties on the part of the commissioners; and finally, the commission form, if once adopted by any city, cannot thereafter be changed by the people of the city until the expiration of the six years, and even then the people have as their only alternative a return to the charter and laws under which the city operated prior to the adoption of the commission law.

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Chelsea's Rejection of Commission Government.—Among opponents of the movement for commission government for cities, there has been much unfounded rejoicing because Chelsea is said to have voted, at the last election, to give up the system. This is not true. Chelsea never had commission government in any accepted sense of the term. What is essential in commission government is the combination of administrative and legislative functions in the hands of a small body of men, and the enforcement of complete popular control by means of non-partisan elections, the recall, the initiative and the referendum. In Chelsea the legislative power was in the hands of a commission appointed by the Governor, while the administrative powers remained with the old departments. The appointed commission appropriated money, and the the departments spent it. Moreover, neither the initiative, referendum nor recall was provided for. The vote on November 7 was not, therefore, a relapse from commission government. The record of the new municipal system is still clear: not a single city which has accepted it has returned to the old system.[2]

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Commission Government in West Virginia.—West Virginia is moving toward commission government for its cities. In 1909 Huntington secured a pure commission form which vests all of its affairs in the control of a board of three men. In the same year, Charleston secured a modified form under which a board of affairs is clothed with large powers. Wheeling has been granted a board of control with considerable powers, although the old system of councils was not done away with and therefore the work of the board is likely to be impeded by the necessity of consulting councils about many matters which should be in its own hands.

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[1] From James L. Jenks.

[2] The Boston *Common*.

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Eureka (Cal.) Fails to Secure Commission Government Charter.—The proposed commission form of government for Eureka was defeated by a vote of 1048 to 124. This defeat is attributed to preference for the city manager plan recently proposed at Lockport, N. Y., which permits the five elected commissioners to appoint a business manager in absolute control of all the city work.

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The League of Library Commissions.—At the mid-winter meeting of the League of Library Commissions, a national organization of various state library commissions, held in Chicago in January, the question of the library features of city charters was touched upon and a committee appointed to consider what features ought to be incorporated in city charters relative to public libraries.

II. FUNCTIONS

The Investigation of Chicago's Police—On September 5 last, Mayor Carter H. Harrison, wrote the civil service commission, calling attention to newspaper stories to the effect that a criminal conspiracy existed between certain commanding officers of the police department and certain gamblers operating within the city limits. He said that it was openly charged that money was paid members of the police department to secure protection. The mayor asked that in connection with the examination of the efficiency of the various classes of the civilservice, the commission undertake to establish the truth or falsity of these charges. On September 7, the commission replied that it would undertake the task, would fix the responsibility for such conditions as might be shown to exist contrary to law or efficient police duty; would report for the information of the mayor such conditions as might be shown to exist tending to impair departmental or individual efficiency. The commission was acting under sections 12 and 14 of the civil service act. On the 7th the Mayor wrote that it was likely that during the investigation representations would be made to the commission that the mayor desired certain things to be done or left undone in connection with it; that in advance he desired to say that no one was authorized to convey any message for him and that if he had anything to communicate he would do so officially.

The commission then asked for $10,000; on September 25, $15,000 was appropriated by the council. W. W. Wheelock, Esq., was selected as special counsel and has, since September 10, devoted his entire time to the work. The commission then directed its efficiency division, Major James Miles being chief of the division, to proceed with the investigation. They devoted their attention, first, to gambling; secondly, to violations of the order of the general superintendent of police of April 28, 1910, concerning (1) The entering of boys under eighteen years of age into disreputable houses; (2) the harboring of inmates under legal age; (3) forcible detention, (white slave trade); (4) the presence of women in saloons; (5) indecent attire; (6) subsisting on the income of inmates; (7) street walking and soliciting; (8) signs, lights, colors or devices; (9) obscene exhibitions; (10) houses of ill fame, outside restricted districts; (11) the sale of liquor in houses; (12) the sale of liquor after 1 a.m.

It also investigated the trade in cocaine, opium and, other drugs; closed up these places and got evidence not only against the sellers but certain physicians and wholesale drug houses. This evidence and much other evidence of various crimes will go to the grand jury.

It then made a study of the departmental organization with a view to fixing the responsibility. It then made a study of the method of keeping reports and correspondence, departmental records and rules. It then investigated the office of the custodian of lost and stolen property. It also investigated the large number of patrolmen on special duty, clerical duty, or duty other than that of police duty (soft berths). It then showed the connection between the abuses in the police department and certain political conditions. It then showed the protection of pickpockets by members of the police force; it investigated and reported on superannuation and incapacity; examinations; promotions; instruction in the police school; substitution of patrolmen. The reports are not all public as yet but from those seen their recommendations are summarized as follows:

The commission finds:

1. That there is, and for years has been, police protection of criminal classes.

2. That a bi-partisan political ring exists by and through which the protection afforded the criminal classes by the police department is fostered and maintained.

3. That to such connection may be charged a great part of the disorganization, lack of discipline and inefficiency existing in the department.

4. That apart from such connection, inefficiency also arises through certain specified faults of organization and administration.

5. That the police department, as now numerically constituted, can, if honestly and efficiently administered, enforce the statutes, city ordinances and regulations in regard to crime and vice as well as perform routine police duty.

The commission recommends:

1. That the division of the city in police divisions and districts be abolished.

2. That the position of inspector be abolished (there were five inspectors).

3. That captains be assigned to command important precincts and lieutenants the remainder and that each be held accountable for conditions therein, reporting directly to general headquarters.

4. That such numbers of captains and lieutenants be detailed to general headquarters as to constitute a working staff for the general superintendent, at all times subject to return to former duty.

5. That a system of inspection be installed that will insure a proper performance of police duty on the part of officers and men.

6. That methods of reports and correspondence and records be handled at headquarters in the manner specified in detail.

7. Assignments to special duties, other than police duty in the strictest sense, be not used, in order that every available patrolman may be on beat. That non-police duty in the department of police be performed by persons paid the regular salary for such work, and taken from the general lists of the proper class.

8. That the present method of assignment of sergeants be revised so as to secure substantial equality as to numbers of men supervised.

9. That transfers as a punishment or at the request of persons outside the department be discontinued and forbidden.

10. That the standard of promotion examination be raised as set forth in detail.

11. That police department efficiency markings be installed as set forth in detail.

12. That annual medical and physical examinations be held and made a part of individual efficiency records.

13. That an age limit be fixed for compulsory retirement.

14. That the police pension law be revised to prevent the payment of pensions to persons discharged from the force.

15. That substitute patrolman be used according to the plan set forth in detail.

16. That the police school of instruction be extended and a system of station schools of instruction uniform throughout the precincts be devised and installed and that a school for officers be established. (Detailed report on curriculum hours, period and expense of conducting the school.)

17. That rules regarding vice be revised and amplified in accordance with the reports of the vice commission, keeping the restricted district.

18. That the ordinance prohibiting street walking be amended so as to provide for a graded increase of fine for each offense, eliminating judicial discretion as far as possible.

19. That the laws regarding vagrants and persons of known bad character be revised as set forth in detail.

20. That a card index system be installed in every precinct station which will at all time show, up to date, the name, description, character, haunts, habits associates and relatives of every known person of bad character, residing in or frequenting such precinct, including classes of criminals set forth in detail.

21. That immediate and stringent measures be taken to disband the organization known as the United Police and to prevent the creation of any organization whose influence and tendency is to break down departmental organization and efficiency. Each of these points is dealt with in a detailed report.

During the progress of the investigation, the commission's trial board has been at work hearing the evidence against particular officers of the force. One hundred fifty of the highest police officials have been discharged and rendered ineligible to the city service in the future. The council has abolished the inspectorships, the police divisions and districts in accordance with the recommendations and report. Gambling has practically ceased within the city. A very large number of disreputable houses outside the restricted district have been closed. The public has had the most striking demonstration of the fact that when the connection between the bipartisan political organization and the police department is broken, the police force can easily enforce the law. The general superintendent of the police is so discredited that his removal by the mayor may be safely predicted.

To illustrate the feeling and enthusiasm in which this "clean up" by the civil service commission has been received, I want to cite one instance: About fifty of the newspaper publishers and multi-millionaires of Chicago, met at the Union League Club and placed at the disposal of the commission a practically unlimited fund. Whether the commission will need it or not remains to be seen. The feeilng is that the mayor is cordially behind the "shake up," but, if he is not, the commission is at present so strong, that neither the mayor nor any political force is strong enough to stop the investigation. The city council is also in the position where, while it is showing alacrity in passing ordinances along the lines recommended, it could not, if it wished, stand in the way. An ordinance re-organizing the police department from top to bottom is being framed and will, undoubtedly, go through. The credit for this whole matter is due to Elton Lower, civil service commissioner, James Miles, chief of the efficiency division, W. W. Wheelock, special counsel to the commission, and to the experts and investigators of the efficiency division. I do not know of anything since the great popular vote in Illinois which has so strengthenened the merit and efficiency system.[1]

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Tramways Finance in Great Britain. At the conference of the Municipal Tramways Association of Great Britain, held in Glasgow last September, a notable paper was presented by Councillor James H. Rodgers. chairman of the Newcastle tramways committee, on the subject, "Tramways Finances and Policy."

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[1] From Robert Catherwood.

Mr. Rodgers had made a sort of unofficial investigation into the finances of the various municipal undertakings of Great Britain. He divided the municipally operated tramways into four lists, according to the soundness of their financial condition and policy. He found thirty undertakings that were doing well. These included the systems of many of the principal cities, such as Birmingham, Bradford, Cardiff, Huddersfield, Leeds, Liverpool, London County Council, Manchester, Sheffield, Newcastle, Aberdeen, Glasgow, Belfast, and Nottingham. The second list comprised fourteen tramway systems, each of which showed "fairly good results." In these cases, however, in the opinion of Mr. Rodgers, "the committees in charge were not justified in paying the amounts they did towards the rates, taking into full consideration the low state of their reserve and renewal funds." This list included among others, Blackpool, Northampton, Salford, and York. In the third list were 16 tramway systems, none of which showed a surplus on the year's work sufficiently large, in Mr. Rodger's opinion, "to allow of the provision of £200 per mile of single track for the renewal fund." He contended that unless such provision could be made, these tramways were not in a sound financial position. The fourth list consisted of thirty-two tramway undertakings which showed no surplus at all, in fact, all but three of them were a charge upon the rates. The third and fourth lists included such towns as Blackburn, Brighton, Dover, Lancaster, Oldham, and Perth.

Mr. Rodgers stated that the first consideration of a tramways committee ought to be to make the undertaking financially sound, by the building up of a sufficient reserve and renewal fund; the second consideration, to see that the traveling public was supplied with proper accommodation and facilities; the third, to see that good conditions of labor were given to all the employees; and the fourth, to see that when the first three had been complied with, the rate payers who backed up the undertaking and over whose streets the cars were run should have some return in the shape of contributions towards the rates. He was insistent that at least £200 per mile of single track ought to be set aside each year to accumulate as a track renewal fund. On this basis, he estimated that funds would be available for the renewal of tracks about once in fifteen years.

This paper called forth a lively discussion among the delegates to the conference. Councillor Spencer, chairman of the Halifax tramways committee, suggested among other things that where tramways had caused increases in land values, those values should be rated, and the proceeds handed over to public funds. He suggested that Mr. Rodgers had forgotten some of the assets which municipal undertakings brought to the locality through which they run. He thought the urban district councils should pay their fair share of the cost of maintaining the roads.

Delos F. Wilcox.

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English Municipal Gas Works.—The report for the year ended March 31, 1911, of the gas department of Stafford, population 25,000, contains some interesting information and figures. The gas works have been in the possession of the municipal corporation for thirty-three years, during which time the bonded indebtedness has been reduced from $550,673 to $182,189, a reserve fund has been provided, and municipal taxes have been reduced $286,019. The price of lighting gas is $0.65 per 1000 feet, with discounts up to 10 per cent according to consumption, and $0.48 per 1000 feet for power, with discounts up to 25 per cent, reducing the price all around to about $0.37.

The gross receipts during the year in question were $162,899 and the expenditures $93,930, leaving a gross profit of $68,969. Loans repaid, interest, etc., amounted to $31,447, and the net balance was distributed as follows: District fund in reduction of taxes, $17,033; free library, $243; suspense account, $6083; reserve fund, $9755; carried forward, $4408. The town had a profit-sharing scheme under which the workmen received a bonus of over 10 per cent of their wages. The amount of gas sent out was 211,852,000 feet, of which 4,358,630 feet was unaccounted for or leakage. The coal used was Staffordshire "washed beans," costing about $2.68 per ton.

The gas business is managed and treated as a separate undertaking. All salaries of officials and expenses of management and operation are included in the balance sheet, and the corporation pays taxes as would an ordinary company.[1]

⁂

Pittsburgh's Public Utilities.—An ordinance will be presented in Pittsburgh council soon at the instigation of Mayor Magee for the creation of a public utilities bureau. This bureau, it is contemplated, will be under the department of public safety and in charge of a superintendent reporting to the department director, as in the case of other city bureaus. The proposed bureau is to have supervision over the following public utilities: Street railways, gas (artificial and natural), private water companies, electric light, heat and power, telegraph and telephone companies. Until state legislation can be gotten the powers of this bureau will be very limited as council can give it little authority. Its work would be chiefly the compilation of statistics and reports to be used later by the city in reaching some definite settlement with the various companies controlling the city's public service franchises.

Until recent years Pittsburgh had little definite information concerning the franchises it had granted or the manner in which they were used. The present city administration took up a study of these questions. The street railways problem was taken first. J. P. Fox, of New York, made a preliminary investigation as to traffic conditions. Bion J. Arnold, of Chicago, then made a more complete study of the entire street railway situation. These two reports were supplemented by an exhaustive investigation of the legal questions involved by C. Elmer Brown, of the city's law department. It was found that the street railway's system was operating under more than one hundred and fifty corporate grants and innumerable ordinances of council. For the first time in the history of the city these various charters and ordinances have been assembled and analyzed. A bill was introduced for the establishment of a public utilities bureau, but it failed to pass. Another measure, giving such a bureau broad powers, will be submitted to the next legislature.

⁂

Providence Municipal Affairs.—Through the influence of the Providence *Journal*, the city government of Providence appropriated the sum of $10,000 for an investigation of the street car system of the city. The investigation resulted in a number of suggestions and the addition of fifty cars to the equipment of the Rhode Island Company.

Considerable interest in local municipal finance was caused by the report recently issued by Commissioner George H. Webb, of the bureau of industrial statistics, which dealt for the first time with the distribution of expenditures in cities and towns of Rhode Island.

⁂

"The Philadelphia Near Side Car."—The Philadelphia Rapid Transit Company has issued a leaflet under this title describing the car adopted by the Stotesbury management of this company as a standard for Philadelphia. It describes and illustrates in detail the distinctive advantages of this form of car. Copies of the pamphlet can be had on application to the office of the company, 820

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[1] From Consul Edward B. Walker, Burslem.

Dauphin Street, Philadelphia. The pamphlet enumerates twenty-two changes and improvements. These have already been embodied in over five hundred cars.

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Chattanooga Franchises.—Railroad companies passing through Chattanooga have been informed by the authorities of that city that it is useless for them to ask for franchises until they are willing to sign an agreement to construct viaducts and thereby eliminate the deadly grade crossings.

✠

A Public Recreation League in Boston. With the aim of focusing the efforts of the various organizations and individuals giving attention to parks, playgrounds, gymnasiums, water facilities and other means of recreation, a Public Recreation League of Boston has been organized. The League elected Joseph Lee, president, and E. B. Mero, secretary. It also appointed two special committees: One on the Charles River Basin, to consider and promote the use of that reservation; the other, on evening recreation, to consider the use of dance halls, gymnasiums, school buildings, lighting of playgrounds and parks, and other matters coming within the limits of the title.

The League asserts emphatically that the time has arrived for making existing parks of human service, stopping if necessary further expenditures of money for material improvement until the social service end catches up; and, in a vote of the League recorded October 13 in disapproval of an ordinance before the Boston City Council proposing the consolidation of four existing city departments into a Park and Recreation Department under the supervision of an architect, a landscape engineer and a civil engineer, it says:

> The League disapproves any specification or designation of occupation that would limit a commission in charge of such a consolidated department to members of particular professions; that the League recommends that such a department be in charge of a man or men whose general executive ability to handle large matters has been proved, in order that the department may be conducted on the broad and progressive lines necessary to a proper administration. . . . .

✠

Efficiency Engineer for Pittsburgh.—The mayor of Pittsburgh has recommended to the council the establishment of the office of efficiency engineer. He has done this on the principle that a single individual can recommend wise economies in all the various activities of the city. So far his suggestion has not met with any general approval. Members of council think the mayor is trying to dodge his responsibility for the efficient conduct of each department. At the head of each he has put a man whose first and almost only qualification is political influence. The council and many citizens feel that it would be wiser to have men at the head of departments who could carry out efficiency recommendations before spending money to secure an efficiency engineer. "This seems to be a case of the cart before the horse. Like many of the mayor's suggestions he has snapped up a good idea and is using it for a blind to his political administration," is the way one qualified observer states the case.

✠

Fire Prevention. Chicago commemorated the fortieth anniversary of the great Chicago fire by a "Fire Prevention Day," the principal purpose of which was to impress upon the city and state the need of more attention and better facilities for the safeguarding of property from the "red plague."

At the thirty-ninth annual convention of the International Association of Fire Engineers a large amount of attention was devoted to the subject of fire prevention. One speaker urged:

> "We should teach our business men that his insurance policy should not act

as a shield to responsibility. He should understand that he not only enriches himself by protecting his own property but that he actually adds to his own wealth in protecting the property of his neighbor, because every species of property that is subject to taxation, when destroyed by fire places necessarily a higher tax upon the property that is not destroyed. Also there is no branch of learning properly taught in the schools of the nation that would yield better results than a course in fire prevention."

A committee of the Boston Chamber of Commerce submitted in September, 1911, a valuable report containing a study of the problem of reducing fire losses and making practical recommendations for the reduction of the construction hazard, the prevention of carelessness or deliberate mismanagement, and the improvement in the efficiency of fire fighting systems.

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Minneapolis Puts on the Lid.—The entire "Red Light" district of Minneapolis was closed up last year as a result of the aggressive efforts of the city government to show that a large city can be run without the social evil. It appears, however, that in consequence of the policy of the authorities, a large number of minor resorts have sprung up in all parts of the city with demoralizing effects upon the young people. This situation has been seriously aggravated by a large increase in the number of dance halls which attract into the streets a great number of unprotected girls from fifteen to eighteen years of age.

*

"The Solution of Denver's Street Waste Problem" is the title of an interesting illustrated folder issued by the American Civic Association. It shows how Denver's garbage is removed without cost to the citizens or to the municipality.

*

Tacoma Extends Library Service.—Tacoma has not only established branch libraries for the accommodation of the people of the city, but is making a special effort to furnish foreigners with easy reading English books as well as literature in their own language. The public school teachers have been given charge of the distribution.

*

Two Harbors Authorizes Municipal Coal Yard.—At the regular meeting of Councils December 4, the city of Two Harbors, Mich., authorized a municipal coal yard. It is claimed that this plan will result in a reduction of from thirty-five cents to a dollar a ton of coal to the consumer.

*

A Coupon Ballot.—In an address before the West Virginia legislature, Moncena Dunn, of La Crosse, Wis., submitted an interesting plan for a coupon ballot. His plan calls for printing the names of the candidates of the several parties on separate but different colored sheets so perforated that the name of each candidate can be removed from the sheet. If the voter desires to vote a straight ticket, he simply tears from the ballot tablet the whole sheet containing the names of his party candidates and deposits it in the ballot box. If the voter wishes to split his ticket, he merely detaches from the proper sheet the name of the man of the other party he desires and places it in a blue envelope, taking from his regular sheet the name of the candidate of his party for whom he does not wish to vote. By this arrangement the candidates for whom he votes are represented by the little perforated tickets placed in the blue envelope. Mr. Dunn believes that this method makes ballot counting several times easier and quicker.

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Pittsburgh has Two New Commissions.—Two new municipal commissions have been appointed in Pittsburgh. One is the commission on municipal art, the president of which is John W. Beatty, director of the department of fine arts of Carnegie Institute; and the other is the commission on city-planning, the temporary chairman of which is former State Senator William Flinn.

⚜

Pittsburgh Hillside Dwellings for Workingmen.—The Pittsburgh civic commission, after two years of study, has devised a method for utilizing the unused, steep and unsightly hillsides of the city. Its report outlines a scheme for hillside dwellings for workingmen and suggests two distinct types. One is a row of small houses fronting on two streets only thirty-two feet apart but the one on a considerably higher level than the other; the other type, a line of attached houses fronting on terraces, the rows running up the hill at right angles to projected streets.

⚜

New Municipal Pier at Philadelphia—The *Engineering Record* of January 6 contains an illustrated article on the latest municipal pier at Philadelphia. This is the first of the piers built by the city for the purpose of trans-Atlantic passenger and freight business, and is one of the steps in a comprehensive plan for the improvement of port facilities. A number of piers are ultimately to be constructed by the city, and all of them are to have connections with the belt railroad.

⚜

Chicago Extends Control of Lake Front.—What Mayor Harrison regards as a "big bargain for the people" was consummated in December when Chicago regained from the Illinois Central Railroad control of the shore of Lake Michigan from Grand Park to the Jackson Park connection. One member of the committee that negotiated the transaction said: "It will enable the city and the park board not only to place the Field museum within reach of everybody in Chicago, but also provide a lake front for beach and park extensions and for driveways." The city-planning commission, to which was delegated the work of providing a plan to beautify this tract, has plans on exhibition which show a lake shore boulevard bordered by elms, maples, chestnuts, oaks, and pines, and facilities for out-door activities, including baseball diamonds, tennis courts, playgrounds and recreation rests.

⚜

City Plan of Albany.—The city council of Albany passed an ordinance January 15 authorizing the commissioner of public works to select an expert to prepare a city plan and appropriated $5000 for the purpose. Provision is made for public hearings by the commissioner of public works. The ordinance specifies that the plan shall show such matters relating to streets, parks and public places, public buildings, works of art and other structures intended for the beautification of the city, the arrangement of street and other railroads, the location and places of residences and other matters. On the same evening the council authorized the improvement of State Street leading to the pier by widening and otherwise improving. Five hundred thousand dollars in bonds was provided for to carry out the work.

⚜

Gary, Indiana, the "model city" built by the United States Steel Company, is to have a landscape architect to plan an extensive system of parks and playgrounds. The Commercial Club of Gary has retained Myron H. West of Chicago for this purpose.

⚜

Cleveland's Upper Air Playgrounds.—The new Eagle School, of Cleveland, which is to be located in the congested business section of the city, provides open play spaces on the second and third floors upon which the class rooms will open. An automatic elevator will make possible easy access to these open air rooms.

Compulsory Notification of Pulmonary Tuberculosis.—By a recent regulation of the British local government board, all cases of pulmonary tuberculosis must hereafter be made known to the local medical officer of health at once.

III. POLITICS

San Francisco's new administration came into power on January 8, and attacked the work of reorganization with energy. Mayor-elect Rolph had called the supervisors-elect together shortly after the results of the November election were known, and a series of meetings was held in which the committees were organized and a plan of municipal improvement was laid out. The first work undertaken was the reorganization of committees to cover the work of a city of today. The supervisors' committees had been organized on the framework of thirty years ago, with a result that the burden of work fell upon a few while the greater number never met. Eighteen committees were formed, the principal ones added being those on electricity, public efficiency and civil service, public welfare, supplies, and one on the exposition. For effectiveness, all committees except the finance and exposition committees are made up of three members, the latter taking five each.

The mayor's inaugural address was short, and set forth his programme in brief as follows: a new city hall and civic center; the purchase of the Spring Valley works; improved street car transportation. Preliminary steps were taken at once by the supervisors to carry out these recommendations.

Practically the entire water supply of the city is furnished by the Spring Valley water works. The city has acquired valuable water rights in Lake Eleanor and the Hetch Hetchy in the Sierras, 170 miles away, but relief from this source is still many years in the future.

Two years ago the citizens refused by a narrow margin of votes to buy the Spring Valley supply for $35,000,000, a two-thirds majority being required. The board of supervisors has passed resolutions calling for a new proposition for purchase, and negotiations are under way to agree upon a price which can be put before the people.

Two years ago the people voted $2,020,000 to reconstruct the Geary street railroad with extensions from the bay to the ocean. The late administration put men at work only last fall on the approach of the elections, and less than one-fifth of the work has been completed. Mayor Rolph called for the completion of this project and its extension; and recommended amendment of the charter to encourage investment of private capital in railroad extensions, on indeterminate franchises with arrangements by which the city can purchase at any time. He also recommended that the 15 per cent bond limit of the city be modified by excluding self-sustaining investments from the calculated liabilities. He recommended certain other charter amendments, an improved auditing system, increase of parks and playgrounds, completion of unfinished public work, and the addition of San Mateo County to the city as a part of a greater San Francisco.

Mayor Rolph made the following appointments to the administrative boards: education, Dr. A. A. D'Ancona, Mary A. Deane; police, Jesse B. Cook, James Woods; fire, H. U. Brandenstein; elections, C. L. Queen, Wm. McDevitt; civil service, E. A. Walcott; public works, Daniel G. Fraser; parks, A. B. Spreckels, Curtis M. Lindley; playgrounds, Rev. D. O. Crowley, Mrs. M. S. Haywood, Marshal Hale, Timothy A. Reardon, Miss Sallie Jones. For his private secretary he chose Edward Rainey, a newspaper man. The holdover members of the various boards show every disposition to accept the situation, and in most cases elected the new members as presidents of the boards.

An investigation of the board of public works begun by the finance committee of the board of supervisors, gave official demonstration of the extravagance which had been known to prevail in that department, and it is expected that further changes will be made in its membership.

With the operation of a constitutional amendment adopted last October, all branches of the city government, except the school, playgrounds and park departments, come under the civil service commission. This service has been much neglected in the past, and there are now about 1500 places nominally under civil service, but held under "temporary appointments" by the head of the office. The purpose of the system has been defeated by making a minute classification of positions and holding no examinations for eligibles to the majority of classes. The new commission is reclassifying places, and it is expected that before the end of the next fiscal year, all appointments will have been made from the regular lists.

To assist in solving the street railroad problem, Bion J. Arnold has been called from Chicago and is gathering data to recommend plans for operating and extending the roads owned by the city, and a business method of dealing with the existing private corporations in order to secure better service. Provision for transportation to the grounds that will be occupied by the Panama-Pacific International exposition in 1915 is the first problem to be taken up, and will absorb most of the energy of the administration for the next three years.

An election to issue $8,800,000 bonds to build a city hall and acquire a civic center, adjoining the old city hall destroyed in the earthquake and conflagration of 1906, has been called for March 28. An election to vote bonds for the purchase of the water system will probably be held before July 1.[1]

In an opinion rendered to Mayor Rolph the employment of experts on the water supply questions and on the traffic situation is approved as legal by City Attorney Percy V. Long. Auditor Thomas F. Boyle at once approved their warrants for payments due them, which he had held up awaiting a decision. Boyle raised the question of the validity of their appointments because of the charter provision that every employe must have been a resident of the city for a year prior to and during his services. City Attorney Long holds that the city has full power to employ experts to advise it upon municipal problems and that such experts need not be residents of the city. By copious quotation of authorities he shows that they are not employes of the city in the sense indicated in the charter, but that they are rather contractors with the municipality for their services.

The charter defines employes as those that are employed at fixed wages payable monthly, whereas the experts contract for a fixed service for stated amounts, without particular regard for the time they are engaged. The courts have repeatedly stated the view that such persons employed by a city are contractors, and therefore not subject to the charter provision about residence.

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Boston's Mayor.—The Boston finance commission finds fault with Mayor Fitzgerald's administration of the city's finance. Its report points out that the appropriations of the past year, for which the mayor may fairly be held responsible, were $13,392,796.42, an increase of $1,684,859.42 over 1910–11 and of $2,030,329.92 over Mayor Hibbard's last term.

It adds, however, that "the extraordinary size of the appropriations is partly accounted for by the large amount appropriated for improvements of a permanent nature, or of the kind for which loans have been authorized in earlier years."

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[1] From E. A. Walcott.

But "the appropriations for permanent improvements out of taxes and revenue are creditable to the mayor and the majority of the city council which supported him in this policy," it says.

The commission's worst count against the mayor is extravagance in payrolls.

"Instead of effecting reforms in the payroll," the report states, "the mayor has permitted an increase in the number and compensation of employes and an unwarranted allowance for overtime payments.

"Exactly how much of the overtime money was unwarranted," says the report, "cannot be stated, without a thorough investigation, but the commission is convinced that a considerable part of the amount spent for this purpose was not justified by the work done.

"In 1910 just before Christmas, two of the mayor's office force received from the city's treasury $200 each in addition to their regular salaries, these payments being entered on the city's books as overtime. They were lump sum payments unaccompanied by itemized statements such as are required in the case of overtime payments by departments other than the mayor's. There is no justification for this practice of the mayor in making presents of the city's money under the guise of overtime payments."

The commission states, without comment, that the expenditures for the maintenance of departments under control of the mayor for 11 months ending December 31 last were $11,365,200.12 or $315,988.62 more than in 1910-11 and $669,236.04 more than in 1909-10.

The commission rejoices however, over the fact that "the borrowing power has been exercised with care and moderation," and that on December 31 there was left a borrowing capacity of $748,983.47. It finds, however, that "if the city council had authorized some of the loans requested by the mayor, this margin would have been practically wiped out."

The city debt, too, was $275,919.50 less, or, exclusive of the rapid transit debt, $450,786.06 less, on December 31, 1911, than on December 31, 1910.

"This," states the commission, "shows that for the time being, at least, the tendency of recent years to increase the debt has been checked."

The commission also ha praise for the award of city contracts.

"The manner," the report says, "in which contracts involving $1000 or more, which under the law require advertisement for bids, have been awarded in the last two years shows a marked improvement over the record of the Mayor in his first term."

The commission has one or two other flaws to pick in the Mayor's record, however, regarding his failure to follow some of its recommendations.

Of the mayor's action on the matter of better fire protection, the commission says:

"The mayor has done nothing to increase the fire fighting force or to provide the necessary motor apparatus, though both have been strongly urged by the fire commissioner. . . . The mayor has attempted to secure an extension of the building limits, so far without success. Neither the mayor nor the city council has taken any steps to restore the fire commissioner's authority over the department in respect to the time-off and meal hours of the firemen."

*

Duluth, Minnesota.—At the city election, February 6, four charter amendments were adopted, of which the most important was that providing for a board of public welfare whose duties are to comprise corrections and amusements within the municipal jurisdiction. The project for a workfarm on municipal lines will be committed to this body. The other amendments relate to the limit of taxation, and the method of dividing assessments, and an appropriation is sanctioned for band concerts in the parks.

The principal issue was upon authorizing the council to issue $700,000 bonds for a lighting plant. It was readily carried. It empowers the city to make a contract for the construction of a plant within that sum, subject to ratification by popular vote. Many who voted for the bonds, quite likely a majority, believe it would be more economical to pay the existing private company a price and a half for its plant than to build a competing plant, and this vote carried largely on the theory that the city would be in a better position to strike a fair bargain. The situation is somewhat complicated by the election for mayor of a candidate of the "good fellow" type who has not been identified with municipal ownership agitation. The Socialists appear above the surface for the first time, electing an alderman from the eighth ward.[1]

* * *

Lowell (Mass.) Elections and the New City Charter.—In December the people of Lowell, Mass., adopted a new city charter providing for the administration of affairs by five "elected selectmen" by a majority of about twelve hundred votes. At the following election held under the new charter, there were about seventy-five candidates for the positions, and, after a vigorous campaign, a mayor and four aldermen were selected. Four of them represented one religious denomination. At the same election, in the filling of a school committee four out of five members belonged to the same religious denomination. From this it appears that the election resulted in a division along sectarian lines instead of political.

* * *

Women in Municipal Office.—To the list of cities in which women hold public office the following in Texas are to be added according to the Dallas *News:*

> Member of the San Jacinto park commission, two members of the state library commission, two members of the board of managers of the state institution for training juveniles, five members of the state board of nurse examiners, county clerk (Angelina County), district clerk (Brunnels and Wilson Counties), tax assessor (Coke County), treasurer (Archer, Crosby, Ellis, San Saba and Wheeler Counties), superintendent of schools (Bee and Marion Counties); three members of the board of regents of the state college of industry.

IV. MEETINGS AND ORGANIZATIONS

Annual Meeting.—The annual meeting of the National Municipal League will be held this year in the city of Los Angeles, July 8 to 12. These dates have been fixed to enable members of the League to plan to take in the annual meeting in connection with their summer outing and to avoid conflict with the national party conventions which are called for June 18 and 24 respectively. A program of great practical interest is in course of preparation. The main attention will be given to charter reform in view of the general interest in the subject and especially on the Pacific coast.

In connection with the annual meeting a Los Angeles committee, appointed by the council of that city, will submit a new charter for the consideration of the League so that the city may avail itself of the suggestions of the League in connection with the charter which it is proposed to submit for formal action at the November election.

Among the subjects that will be discussed at Los Angeles are the following: Commission government for large cities, municipal finance and taxation, adequate civil service law, the expert in municipal affairs, honesty plus efficiency, how can we work the university graduate into municipal government? excess condemnation, state versus municipal regulation of public utilities, street railway franchises the actual operation of the initiative and recall in California, the actual operation of woman's suffrage on the Pacific Coast, home rule in California cities, socialism in municipalities, how to educate the people to demand better government, the boss' day in court, the elimination of the party boss in California cities, the work of the League of California Municipalities, an adequate housing program, a municipal health program, commercial value of city planning, civic education, the handling of the social evil.

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[1] From John S. Pardee.

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The President of the National Municipal League Speaks.—During December and January, the Hon. William Dudley Foulke, of Richmond, Ind., president of the National Municipal League, delivered a number of lectures on "Municipal Efficiency" at Chicago and other towns of the middle west.

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The National Assembly of Civil Service Commissioners will hold its fifth annual meeting at Spokane, Washington, June 21 to 22 next. The opening address will be made by F. A. Chase, a member of the Spokane civil service commission. Among the subjects to be considered are the following: Political activity, organization of the new service, civil service in practice, efficiency: what is it? civil service in California, the awakening of Philadelphia.

*

A Second State Conference on Taxation was held in Buffalo, New York, January 9–11. In general it followed the plan of organization and discussion adopted for the first conference held at Utica last year. The attendance was larger and there was a more general participation in the discussions. Many of the delegates were state and local officials whose duties relate to the assessment or collection of taxes; and others represented local boards of trade and state-wide organizations interested in taxation, so that the subjects discussed were considered from the taxpayer's viewpoint as well as from the administrative side. The universities were also invited, so that the economist's views might be presented, and there were also present state tax officials and members of investigating commissions from several other states.

The chief topic of discussion was the improvement of local assessment methods and the securing of changes in the laws relating to assessment and collection of taxes, which, in New York, are far behind those of many other states. Among the resolutions of general interest was one recommending such a revision of the tax law as would prevent the double taxation of property of individuals or corporations doing business in more than one state, following the example set by the inheritance tax law amendments of last year, which abolished double taxation on the property of non-residents. Another resolution, passed after a spirited discussion by a vote of 61 to 17, advocated a law compelling the true consideration paid for real estate to be either stated in the deed or given separately in an affidavit to be filed with the local assessor. The third conference will be held at Binghamton, January, 1913.

These state conferences have been modeled upon the plan of the National Tax Conferences. Their purpose is to secure the discussion of taxation and assessment methods by those directly concerned either as administrators or taxpayers. The attendance at both state conferences has been thoroughly representative of all sections of the state, and most of those present have come from the smaller cities and rural districts. In fact the country districts have shown more interest than the cities. This is in part due to the fact that more progress has been made in the cities towards better assessment and in administration generally, and therefore these problems are not so acute. Nevertheless it is encouraging to see that the smaller taxing districts are taking such an interest in improving administration, as this is a great help in securing legislative action. Unfortunately, the statutes in New York as in many other states, enter into minute detail in matters of administration, and leave little to the discretion of the local governments. So that little progress can be made in any locality without securing authority from the legislature, or a general change in the law.[1]

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The Ohio Municipal Conference.—A municipal conference of delegates appointed by the mayors of fifty-three cities in Ohio met in Columbus on January 24 and 25. The conference was called by the Municipal Association of Cleveland as the oldest civic organization in the state, with the approval and cordial support of the mayors of the first ten cities of Ohio. The primary objects of the meeting were two: First, to consider the question of the position of cities in the new constitution now being framed; second, the advisability of organizing a state municipal league. One hundred and fifty-three delegates were present at the three sessions of the conference. The chief speakers were E. J. Schreiter, Jr., of Detroit, secretary of the League of American Municipalities, who gave an address on "State Leagues of Municipalities;" Rev. Washington Gladden, who delivered an address on "Government of Cities," and Mayors Newton D. Baker of Cleveland, Brand Whitlock of Toledo, and Henry T. Hunt of Cincinnati, who discussed "The Position of Cities in the New Constitution."

An Ohio Municipal League was organized to bring about a closer coöperation among the cities of Ohio; to promote legislation beneficial to the cities and to collect and disseminate information on problems of municipal government and administration. The membership in the new organization is to be different from that of any similar state league in that the membership will be composed of municipalities, local, civic, commercial and other organizations interested in civic affairs, and citizens from the cities of the state. It was the view of the conference that the time had come when city officials, civic organizations and citizens in general could meet in annual conferences and discuss the need of their respective cities. Ohio has eighty-three municipalities of over 5000, and more than 180 villages of over 1000. All of these will be eligible to membership in the new organization.[2]

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New York Municipal Government Association.—The Municipal Government Association of New York was organized at Albany on January 12, 1912. The officers of the new Association are:

President: Hon. John K. Sague, mayor of Poughkeepsie, and vice-chairman Democratic State League.

Secretary: Ralph Bowman, former secretary of the Commission Government Association of New York State, now united with the new organization.

Treasurer: Sam. A. Lewisohn, of Adolph Lewisohn and Sons, bankers, New York City.

The Directors are: Robert S. Binkerd, secretary the City Club, New York. Richard S. Childs, secretary Short Ballot Organization, New York. J. Hampden Dougherty, lawyer, New York. Prof. Herman L. Fairchild, Rochester University, and president National Geological Society. Darwin R. James, Jr., president Brooklyn Young Republican Club. Geo. W. Knox, president Board of Trade, and president Niagara Falls Commission Government Association. Howard T. Mosher, lawyer, Rochester. Charles Rohlfs, manufacturer, and director Buffalo Chamber of Commerce and Manufacturers' Club.

The program of the Association embraces:

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[1] From A. C. Pleydell.

[2] From Mayo Fesler, Cleveland.

1. Real home-rule by giving the city governments the powers to deal with local affairs without constantly running to the legislature.

2. Municipal elections on municipal issues, by a non-partisan municipal elections act.

3. Simple and efficient forms of city government, by general statutes.

4. Sound financial methods, uniform municipal accounting, and constitutional protection of the right of local self-government.

An investigation of county government, looking to its reorganization on lines of greater economy and efficiency, will also be undertaken.

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Commission Government in Pennsylvania.—The action of the committee of allied civic bodies, representing cities of the third class and boroughs of Pennsylvania, in connection with the convention held at Lancaster January 18–19 is interesting and suggestive. A carefully prepared program was carried through, including addresses on the difficulties of good municipal government in Pennsylvania, on the advantages of the simpler form of short ballot charter and on plans for securing home rule. The attendance was satisfactory and the conference passed the resolutions which follow. Among the addresses made was one on "Getting Better Legislation," by J. Horace McFarland, which reviewed rather vigorously the conditions under which the people of third class cities and boroughs in Pennsulvania are not free and are not governed in a democratic fashion, as compared with foreign government.

The resolutions adopted provided that the committee on laws be directed to prepare a proper bill to provide for non-partisan nominations and elections in the municipalities. These bills are to be presented to the next legislature for enactment, after being approved by an adjourned meeting to be called by the president.

It was also recommended that the president appoint a campaign committee to consist of one person in every city of the third class and borough of the state, who shall serve as chairman of the campaign committee in that community and that action be taken at once to form an organization and enter into a campaign of education. Each committee is to secure an expression from every candidate for the legislature as to his attitude toward the legislation demanded.

Other recommendations made were:

First: The election of a small council of five members with a salary sufficiently large to justify the members elected to devote all their time to the affairs of the city and to insure the election of capable men.

Second: The council to be nominated and elected at large on a non-partisan ballot.

Third: The council to appoint all subordinate officials and employes, with the power of removing them at will. Each councilman shall be the head of a department of the city and shall be responsible for the affairs of that department.

Fourth: The initiative, referendum recall and civil service.

The following officers were elected for the ensuing year: President, A. M. Fuller Meadville, Pa.; vice-president, Charles A. Miller, Harrisburg; secretary, Mayor Ira W. Straton, Reading; treasurer, Jacob Umnitz, Erie.[1]

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New Jersey Mayors.—An informal conference of about twenty-five mayors of New Jersey cities was held on January 3 at which Governor Woodrow Wilson presided. The object of the meeting was to discuss ways and means for bringing the antiquated charters of many new Jersey cities up to date. The new commission government of Trenton was cited as producing efficient results. As a result of the meeting Governor Wilson agreed, in an unofficial capacity, to appoint a committee to draw up a "sample charter" which the cities of the state might follow.

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[1] From J. Horace McFarland, Harrisburg.

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City Beautiful Congress.—In connections with the Clay Products and Permanent Home Exposition, held in Chicago, March 7 to 12, city mayors and delegates were called together in a municipal congress at which the chief topic of discussion was the "Practical City Beautiful." The clay workers provided an exhibit showing not only a street with properly arranged and constructed sewerage lines, conduits, pavements, curbing, electric power transmission lines and telephone systems but also fire proof construction to prevent fire horrors.

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An International Coal Smoke Abatement Exhibition was held late in March in London following similar exhibitions in other parts of Great Britain. The exhibition showed graphically all means for the abatement of both factory and domestic smoke, in order to show the progress in applied inventions and popularize the work of smoke abatement.

*

The Union Internationale des Tramways et des Chemins de Fer d'Intérêt Local will hold its next session at Christiana in July, 1912. The union is composed of representatives from continental countries and deals entirely with the problems of transportation, particularly of urban transportation. The announced program covers such subjects as the influence of transportation on urban development, the organization and character of service and the relation of tramways to local railroad transportation. The problems discussed cover conditions all over Europe, practically every country being represented in the list of speakers.

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Annual Meeting of the Municipal Association of Cleveland.—The annual meeting of the Municipal Association of Cleveland held March 2, in the Chamber of Commerce Auditorium was devoted entirely to the question of municipal efficiency. The Association is expanding its work to include the investigation of county and city offices, with a view to securing greater efficiency in their administration. John H. Clarke, a member of the executive board, spoke on the work of the association for the year and the plans for the efficiency work. Harry L. Vail, member of the board of county commissioners, pointed out the need of efficiency work in county offices, and assured the association of the hearty coöperation of the county offices in their work. Newton D. Baker, mayor of the city, not only endorsed the movement, but pointed out that it could be of material assistance to the city administration. The association is engaged in a campaign for raising $20,000 for this purpose. Over half the fund is reported in sight. The Municipal Association formerly merely passed upon candidates for office, but during the past eighteen months has undertaken in addition to the investigation of candidates a number of constructive movements. It is also helping the short ballot campaign in Ohio.

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Stiles P. Jones, of Minneapolis, a member of the council of the National Civil Service Reform League, has been active for some years in trying to secure the adoption of the merit system in his city. At his request the charter commission invited Elliot H. Goodwin, secretary of the League, to address them. He spoke before the commission upon the advantages of the adoption of civil service reform in the city government and the results that had been obtained through it. On Monday afternoon he conferred with the committee of the commission on civil service regarding the provisions to be inserted in a civil service chapter. During his stay he addressed the Saturday Lunch Club, the Adult Class of the Unitarian Church, the Women's Club, and the Civic and Commerce Association. This association, recently organized and having already a membership of over six hundred, voted at the close of its meeting on March 4 to appoint a committee to organize a civil service reform association. The city council, whose members were invited to attend the meeting of the charter commission at which Mr. Goodwin spoke, have taken up a consideration of the question of the adoption of the merit system by ordinance.

* * *

The United Improvement Association of Boston has elected Mr. Howard Whitmore to the position of executive secretary of the Association. Mr. Whitmore is a graduate of Harvard College and the Harvard Law School and is a practicing attorney. He has been prominent in social work in Boston; a trustee of the Wells Memorial Institute, the large and successful People's Club; a director of the Newton Y. M. C. A. and a member of the Boston City Club.

* * *

New York Washington Square Association.—The recent report of the Washington Square Association of New York City shows an active 1911. Its work during the year covered a large variety of matters, including a campaign against fire traps, improperly protected cellar ways, sidewalk obstructions, overflowing gutters, delayed garbage removal, push cart annoyances, street signs, overhead wires and inefficient policing.

V. ACADEMIC AND EDUCATIONAL

Instruction in Municipal Affairs. On November 19, the New York *Tribune* printed an account of an "experiment in training men till they become experts in municipal government," describing the school recently founded by Mrs. E. H. Harriman in coöperation with thirty-one leading citizens of New York and with the Bureau of Municipal Research for training by means of practical work in municipal affairs a certain number of picked men who give reasonable indications of their likelihood to be able to contribute to the betterment of municipal government in this country by reason of such a training as is proposed. The article states that Mrs. Harriman has given $80,000 towards this purpose, that the business friends and associates of the late Mr. Harriman have among them guaranteed $120,000, and that the intention is to have the fund cover all expenses in connection with the school for five years to come.

Recasting the *Tribune's* heading to read "an experiment in training men in the interests of efficient municipal government" it may be said that the facts cited above are substantially correct. Men who are actively engaged, or who have been actively engaged in municipal administration or operation will, if they conform to certain standards, be made to see how their tasks can be simplified and their efficiency increased; men who are experts in certain branches of municipal activity will be shown how to render their work more effective by reason of a broader conception of municipal government; men will be trained for general municipal advancement work and men will be taught by intimate contact with practice and detail as illustrated by the New York City government how to deal with municipal problems. The Bureau of Municipal Research undertakes to administer this Harriman fund and to direct the time and work of the several classes of workers. It does this as a part of its tremendous campaign for civic betterment which has already borne such good fruit in New York and other cities. It does this in the firm belief that in furnishing to post-experience and post-graduate students the facilities for first-hand knowledge of living, practical city problems and activities it is rendering the greatest possible service to municipal government in this country and is making possible of achievement Mr. E. H. Harriman's desire for a "better article of government at less cost."

It is impracticable here to discuss in detail the system by which this work is to be carried on. The relations between the Harriman students and the public, and their relations to the Bureau of Municipal Research have not all been elucidated, and vary besides in the case of each individual man. One thing is certain, the establishment of a training school along these lines meets a long felt want—a want concerning which there has been much outcry since and before the days of Ambassador Bryce's *American Commonwealth,* but for the satisfying of which very little has been done. If Mrs. Harriman and her allies, acting through such a proven instrument of effective publicity and uplift as this Bureau can manage at last to reach the American people and arouse their sense of civic pride then will they have done more towards solving the vexed questions of self-government than many national commissions or floods of philanthropic oratory.

The fund is administered by a board of trustees, composed of George W. Perkins, C. A. Coffin and Mortimer L. Schiff. The students will be trained in the analysis of budget estimates, charter drafting and exposition, management of school problems, standardization of salaries, contracts and specifications, methods of assessing and collecting taxes, the preparation of handbooks on administrative practices, the investigation of proceedings of public bodies, and the preparation of public statements. In connection with the regular courses excellent opportunities for field work will be offered under the supervision of experienced workers in the Bureau or in the city departments, which have offered to coöperate with the new school. Four classes of applicants are expected; college graduates wishing to go into public service or social work; candidates wishing to qualify for the analysis of public business; secretaries of civic organizations desirous of taking up public business, and post graduate students in politics, economics, law and journalism, who wish to supplement their academic training by practical field work. This unique foundation is full of promise for the advancement of municipal science in the United States and will afford exactly the element which has been lacking in municipal instruction thus far —laboratory practice after theoretical training.

William H. Allen.

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Düsseldorf's Municipal College. Düsseldorf, Germany, one of the conspicuously well governed cities of Germany, and therefore of the world, has established a precedent that may well be followed, and to great advantage, in America. It has instituted a college for the specific instruction of municipal officials, who have a real career open for them in that city and country. According to the advices from Germany, although she may have and very likely does have the best staff of public officials probably of all the civilized nations, the recent development of municipal policies has proved that even in this field further extension is not only possible but necessary. The rapid growth of some German communities forced their officials into spheres of greater responsibilities than there were at the time when they took office, and it is therefore incumbent upon these officials, especially those among them who hold higher and more responsible posts, to spend much time and study to acquire the knowledge necessary if they wish to fulfill their duties, and to their credit it must be said that they are eager for instruction on the problem of meeting their new responsibilities.

Municipal administration in all its branches has become a distinct branch of modern political science in Germany. Consequently, the necessity has become evident there that men should be especially educated for it. For a number of years several cities, at their head Berlin, have established special training schools for employees of certain departments like the police department and opened training schools for all kinds of municipal officers of the lower rank.

Düsseldorf, however, has conceived a plan under which a school for the higher municipal officials has been created. This institution of learning, standing absolutely under the control of the municipality, opened its first course on October 30, 1911. The course is intended to cover two semesters of three months' lecture periods each, at the end of which the students will have to undergo a graduating examination. The course of study will cover all phases of municipal law, connected in several instances with practice; also, the modern problems in the life of a city, as the labor question, social questions as a whole, the relief of the poor, public sanitation, organization of city government, city charters, etc.

The teachers will be acknowledged authorities in their special branches, recruited from the circles of university professors and tutors, judges of high courts, and men who have had practical experience in municipal administration.

Young men who have been graduated from a "gymnasium" or a "real-gymnasium" of the first class, or who have passed an examination equivalent to the graduating examination of one of these institutions, for instance the officers' examination for the army, will be eligible to the college, according to the advices from Germany. Many officers of the army, finding that their advancement is too slow, as well as people who originally intended to serve the state as jurists, give up these careers after some years and try to obtain positions in the municipal service. It is expected that a large number of these men will study in the new college. Furthermore, city officials who, without having passed the required examinations, make good this lack of academic training by years of practical work in the municipal service as mayors of smaller cities, etc., will probably likewise take up theoretical studies in the new university. And finally, engineers and men engaged in the several branches of technical work, whose coöperation is so important for the development of a modern city, will also enroll. People who do not wish to become regular students, but simply intend to hear one or more lectures, will receive permission to do so by the authorities on special application, provided they pay a small fee.

This experiment in official training will be watched with keen interest and may, and in all likelihood will, be followed in this country, where municipal work is becoming more and more complicated and difficult and calls for more highly trained men. When municipal service becomes an established career to which young men can look forward, then there will follow naturally preparations for training such as the Düsseldorf authorities have already provided.

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Harvard Bureau of Research.—Through the benefaction of two graduates Harvard University was enabled to establish last autumn a Bureau for Research in Municipal Government. This Bureau will be administered in connection with the regular instruction in that subject offered at the university to undergraduates and graduates. In its main purpose the Harvard bureau differs from the institutions of research established by city governments or by private philanthrophy for the assistance of city officials. It is first of all intended to be a place in which students of municipal government may obtain practice in the use of official data; only incidentally is it designed to be a center for collecting and disseminating information in the form of bulletins or otherwise. All the more important official publications issued by the larger cities of the United States have already been acquired and put upon the shelves for the use of

Harvard students. The collection includes copies of the charters, revised ordinances, annual reports and statistical publications. In addition fairly complete files of the publications of the more important civic organizations, such as good government leagues, taxpayer's associations, chambers of commerce, city clubs, and the like, have been secured.

The programme of instruction in municipal government at Harvard comprises not only a general course on comparative municipal government under the direction of Professor W. B. Munro, who is also in charge of the Bureau for Research, but an advanced course on the Problems of Municipal Administration, given by Hon. Nathan Matthews, former mayor of Boston, and Hon. John A. Sullivan, chairman of the Boston Finance Commission. For graduates a course on Municipal Corporations is offered by Professor Joseph H. Beale, Jr., and a course on City Planning is in charge of Professor Frederick Law Olmsted, assisted by Professor J. S. Pray.

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Cambridge to be Assisted by Harvard Experts.—By a vote of the corporation of Harvard University, it has been provided that within reasonable limits upon application of the city authorities of Cambridge to the president of the university expert advice on municipal affairs will be given gratuitously by suitable professors of the faculties of the university. This is only a part of a broader scheme for placing the staff and facilities of the university at the service of the city. This plan is not expected to mean, however, that the faculty of law, for example, would supply the city with all requisite legal service that might be required or that the engineering staff would perform the engineering work of the city; it simply implies that the expert opinion of the professors of the university is made available to the municipal authorities.

VI. JUDICIAL DECISIONS[1]

Initiative and Referendum.—Mention was made in the last number of the case of the *Pacific States Telephone and Telegraph Company v. Oregon*, involving the validity of direct legislation under the federal constitution, just then argued in the Supreme Court of the United States. On February 19 the court handed down an opinion disposing of the appeal on the ground that the question was a political, not a judicial one, in that it lies with the congress to determine whether or not the forms of government maintained in any state are "republican" within the purview of the federal constitution. Since congress has repeatedly expressed its judgment on the matter by recognizing members of both houses from states which legislate in this manner, and still more unequivocally by providing for the admission of new states with constitutions including provisions for the initiative and referendum, the question is to all intents and purposes laid at rest.

The friends of the system had hoped that the court would fully and finally dispose of the arguments against its "republicanism," which to many of them did not appear weighty. Considering the superior flexibility and adaptability of political over judicial decisions, the conclusion reached by the court may be deemed to have a strong tendency to make of the constitution a garment rather than a straight jacket; and let us hope that at any rate the settlement of the controversy will permit the consideration of direct legislation in a calm and rational spirit of inquiry to take the place of the extravagant encomium and ignorant and frivolous condemnation, which have been all too common hitherto.

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[1] Prepared by Richard W. Montague, Esq., of the Portland (Ore.).

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Crowding Street Cars.—Municipal legislation limiting the number of persons that might be carried in a street car received attention in *Minneapolis Street Railway Company v. Minneapolis.*[1] An ordinance limiting the number of passengers at any one time to seventy-five and imposing a penalty for its violation was held reasonable and valid. Other ordinances required the company to furnish and run a sufficient number of cars to accommodate the traveling public; but no penalty was imposed for failure to comply with these latter, although it appears the state had some reserved right to forfeit the charter. The court holds that the prohibition against taking on an excessive number relieves the carrier of any obligation to stop and take on passengers, after the number was reached. Possibly some people will be surprised to hear that any such obligation existed. The decision indicates clearly that any useful reform in this matter must embrace both sides of the difficulty. Limitation of the number of passengers will be ineffective—often intolerable—unless it is coupled with vigorously enforced measures for securing adequate service. The REVIEW ventures to suggest that something might be done in the way of regulating the number of seats that should be provided for in a given area of car floor space. The present way of designing cars so as to seat 32 people and give standing room for 75 strikes some observers as a cynical and impudent denial of the right to seats—if there is any such right.

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Political Activity of Municipal Employees.—The Sherman act of February 15, 1906, prohibiting certain specified kinds of political activity by municipal employees was upheld in the court of common pleas of Philadelphia on February 13. The court held that the act did not in any way conflict with constitutional provisions respecting free speech; that if in the judgment of the legislature political activity (and especially the taking of an active or managing part in political affairs) was likely to interfere with efficient public service, abstention from it might properly be required as a condition of remaining in the public service—just as engaging in any other business which tended to impair the employee's usefulness might be prohibited. The court also holds that dismissal for the reasons set forth in the act is not dismissal for a "political cause," which would seem sufficiently obvious.

The decision is regarded as of high importance as making possible the hunting out of a large number of the "little foxes that spoil the vines" in the service of Pennsylvania cities.

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Conduct Unbecoming an Officer.—The supreme court of Washington in *State ex rel. v. Seattle,*[2] sustained a removal in a case where a police officer was accused of "conduct unbecoming an officer; being in a compromising position with a respectable married woman." (Note the chaste restraint of the language; could Marie Corelli have outdone it?) Not to fall away a vibration from the high key thus set, the commission announced that they were not prepared to find that "Mr. S." the patrolman, had been guilty of the serious offense with which he was charged, but sustained the removal on the ground that in cultivating the acquaintance of the lady he had been guilty of conduct unbecoming an officer.

The court (preserving its gravity) held that while the discharge must be upon the ground stated in the accusation, and none other, it might be, and therefore was, sustained on a finding that the accused was guilty of a lower grade of the same offense.

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[1] 189 Fed., 445.

[2] 118 Pacific Reporter, 821.

Repeal of Franchise.—The city of Seattle undertook to repeal a franchise, pursuant to a reservation in the instrument of the right to repeal if the franchise were not operated in accordance with its terms. The franchise holder sought to enjoin the repeal by suit in the federal court, alleging that it had complied with the ordinance and no cause for the repeal existed. The city contended that this was a pure question of fact which the federal court had no jurisdiction. Judge Donworth held that the real question was whether the repeal impaired the obligation of the contract created by the franchise, that this involved the construction of the instrument, and of the federal constitution, and that the question of fact could not be separated from these questions of law. The opinion clearly and expressly recognizes the right of the city to repeal where a right of repeal is reserved, and affirms the established doctrine that if such right of repeal is absolute, the exercise of it is not in violation of the federal constitution.

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Democracy of Commission Form of Government.—The distinction between political and legal questions laid down by the Supreme Court of the United States in the initiative case was certainly overlooked by the lawyers in Texas who contended that the commission form of government (and in Galveston, the *fons et origio* of the system!) was not democratic. The court disposed of the question by saying:

> While the commission form of municipal government, which seems to have had its origin in the charter under which the city of Galveston now operates its city government, does not to the extent usual in city charters follow the tendency heretofore shown in the evolution of free popular government to avoid as far as possible the concentration of power in any one governmental officer, it is nevertheless a democratic form of government, which rests at last upon the consent of a majority of the governed. The several commissioners are given special charge of the respective departments to which they are assigned, and the powers conferred upon each commissioner in the management of his department are large and comprehensive, but he must, unless otherwise expressly authorized by the charter, exercise such powers in subordination to the will of the majority of the board who represent the supreme power of the will of the people.[2]

* * *

Dictagraph Evidence.—An interesting development of the law of evidence occurred in the Gary bribery trial (*State of Indiana v. Williston*) in the admission of evidence transmitted by the dictagraph to a shorthand reporter stationed in another room, to which the wires from the receiver were run for the purpose. No question appears to have been made except as to the ability of the shorthand reporter to take down all the conversations as rapidly as they occurred. The incident suggests that the much needed reform of our methods of taking testimony may come through the improved physical and psychological methods, of which some hints have been given us by Professor Münsterberg, rather than by the interminably slow march of procedural reform.

* * *

Charter Revision in Michigan.—In *Kuhn v. Common Council of Detroit*,[3] it was held that the recent constitutional and statutory amendments permitting cities to frame their own charters did not authorize piecemeal amendments under the act until a general revision had been made, containing the compulsory provisions of section 3 of the act and the restrictive provisions of section 5. The court is of opinion that this construction only is in harmony with the constitutional provisions to provide a municipal constitution for all cities in conformity with the fundamental pro-

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[1] *Seattle R. & S. Ry. Co. v. Seattle*, 190 Fed., 75.

[2] Perrett v. Wegner 139 S. W. Rep., 984, 989.

[3] 164 Mich. 369; 129 N. W. Rep., 879.

visions of which each city may govern itself according to the judgment of its electors.

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Commission Government.—Legal proceedings have been instituted to test the validity of the commission form of government in Mankato, Minnesota, Pueblo, Colorado, and Salt Lake, Utah. As far as the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW is advised, no new points of general interest have come to light in any of these actions, nor have any of them resulted in any judgments denying the legality or constitutionality of the system.

VII. SOCIAL AND MISCELLANEOUS

National Department of Municipalities Suggested.—In the *American City* for January, several writers advocate the establishment of a federal bureau of municipalities. The subject is introduced by Philip Kates, of Oklahoma, who points out that the modern city is an industrial and not a political problem. He says:

> The idea that the city problem is a national problem, in the same sense that agriculture is a national problem, may seem strange to those who regard the city as a local political unit, and not a part of the great industrial life of the nation. There are great national organizations whose work is slowly educating the country to regard the city problem in its proper light but these are non-official organizations, supported by voluntary contributions of public spirited citizens. . . . . If we would solve the problem for the future, the federal government must take up the work. I believe that the first thing we must have is a comprehensive and authoritative study of the municipal problem in its basic principle—its relation to our industrial life. Such an investigation involves an industrial survey of national scope with its attendant investigations into causes of congestion of population, and the remedies by improved communication and transportation and other means; into sanitary conditions as they affect not only the city proper but the industrial district; into housing, disposal of municipal waste, and above all into industrial working conditions.

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Census Statistics of Cities.—The readers of the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW will undoubtedly be keenly disappointed to learn that owing to the limited appropriations made for the bureau of the census, that bureau has found it impossible at the present time to print the finished report for the 1909 statistics of cities containing 30,000 population and over. This report of the financial statistics of cities cannot be printed, by reason of the fact stated, until after the first of July next. The 1910 financial and general statistics of cities will be finished before this news reaches the readers of the REVIEW; and in turn this publication will be held up and cannot go to press, unless other appropriations are made specially available for the purpose, until after the first of July.

The same shortage of appropriations will delay the statistics for 1911. The canvass for these statistics should have begun the first of February of this year; but moneys are not available for that purpose and will not be until after the first of July. This will necessarily delay the issue of the statistics for 1911 some five or six months.

As much of the value of these statistics must come from their promptness of issue, all who are interested in the cause of publicity concerning city affairs which has been provided by these statistics will join in the regret that appropriations are not available for carrying forward this very useful branch of statistical work of the United States Government.[1]

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[1] It occurs to the Editor to suggest that the readers of the REVIEW write their respective senators and representatives calling their attention to the importance of this work and asking them to use their influence in preventing a recurrence o this delay.
C. R. W.

President Foulke of the League spoke before the Chicago School of Civics on February 8 on the subject of "Civil Service Reform," with special reference to the employment of experts in cities and higher municipal offices; on Friday, February 9, before the Commerical Club of Omaha; on Saturday, February 10, before the Voters' League of Minneapolis, and February 12 before the "Current Topics" Club at St. Paul, and on Monday before the City Club of Milwaukee, all on "Effective City Government," and on Tuesday before the Wisconsin Civil Service League, on the application of the merit system in the employment of experts and municipal officers.

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A Short Program for a Social Survey.—Dr. Carol Aronovici has issued through the department of social and public service of the American Unitarian Association a pamphlet, entitled "Knowing One's Own Community," which will be helpful to social workers contemplating a local "survey." The ideal which the author has in mind is set forth as follows:

> We believe that human nature under proper conditions is capable of vastly greater efficiency, service and happiness than present conditions have ever made possible of attainment. Each locality presents its own special problems of human conservation and community efficiency, and it is the purpose of this bulletin to guide public-spirited citizens in the work of ascertaining the conditions that prevail in their own community, particularly small cities and towns. When the facts are known and the good is balanced against the bad, a consciousness of public responsibility is bound to result which will blast the way towards improvements of a constructive, far reaching and permanent character. This will result in a standard of human efficiency that will affect both production and its rewards in a manner that will create a community patriotism worthy of its brother, the national love of country and nation.

After stating his ideal Dr. Aronovici gives classified lists of questions on social and economic matters about which positive information must be secured before any real remedial work can be begun. The author insists, however, that

> the work of the surveying committee should not end with the knowledge of facts, but that a definite constructive program of public action will be formulated which will include every phase of community life studied and will affect every important aspect of the social, political and industrial life of the people.

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Social Survey in Syracuse.—Last summer a committee of twelve representing equally the Ministerial Association, the Chamber of Commerce, the Trades Association and the Associated Charities undertook the investigation of social conditions in Syracuse. It was not intended to make an exhaustive study. Attention was concentrated on a few subjects such as health and its conservation, civic improvement, sewage, labor conditions and the housing of unskilled laborers. Shelby M. Harrison, director of the survey, was assisted by a corps of trained workers who either volunteered their services or were lent by state organizations. In order that their findings might reach the people and generate enthusiasm for reform the week of November 19 was set aside as "Know Your City Week." Afternoon and evening the public were invited to hear the reports of investigators and the views of experts from New York, Chicago and other cities. Altogether 8000 persons attended the meetings. Moving pictures illustrating welfare work were shown in one of the theatres. A departmental store filled its windows with statistical charts. The offer of prizes for essays on "How to Make a Better Syracuse" enlisted the interest of school children. A thousand of them studied the subject in the public library and entered the competition. The municipal program of the central committee, representing the coöperating associations, is embodied in the following resolutions:

First—That the mayor and common council be urged to establish a city planning and housing commission to secure a plan for the city's growth and development, and draw up a housing code such as would meet the needs of the city for some time to come.

Second—That the board of education be petitioned to consider and adopt a far-reaching plan for the education of the foreign population of the city by a larger provision of night schools, by the introduction of civics and industrial courses in night schools, and by the extension of vocational training to the grades.

Third—That the police and school departments be petitioned to enforce the child labor laws relative to the street trades.

Fourth—That the board of health should be petitioned to provide:

(a)—For the inspection of mercantile establishments and for the enforcement of those provisions relating to child labor, hours of work of women, and sanitary conditions under which such people work.

(b)—For the publishing monthly of the milk score of all milk producers whose milk is sold in the city.

(c)—For more rigid inspection of tenements.

(d)—For the engagement by the city of the services of some sanitarian of national standing to study and report on the needs of the public health of Syracuse, as a basis for planning future health work.

Fifth—That the employers engaged in such industries as require the plant to be in continuous operation be urged to make such adjustments as to assure every laborer one day of rest in seven.

Sixth—That there should be among the betterment agencies of the city a closer coöperation expressed in some system such as a united charities, social service league or an associated charities organized on broader lines than those in existence at present.

"Seventh—That the city at large have some organization for the study of the city needs and development and to crystallize the findings of such studies in some yearly program such as this Know-Your-City Week.

Eighth—That to accomplish this end the central survey committee recommend to the respective bodies represented in the committee the formation of a comprehensive and democratic body to study the problems and promote the adoption of the reform suggested by the survey.

Social Centers in Rochester.—A few years ago the attention of social workers was drawn to the very interesting experiment of the use of public school buildings as centers for civic education in Rochester, and they learned with regret, some months ago, that the enterprise had apparently failed. It is now announced, however, that after having been closed for six months, at least one school is to continue the experiment. It is reported that a great number were unable to gain admittance to the school on the re-opening night late in January and that enthusiasm ran higher than ever among the 1500 present. While it now appears likely that more schools may be re-opened as social centers, the civic clubs are still very much in disfavor. They may be permitted to meet in the schoolhouses in the near future provided no civic questions are discussed. There seems to be an idea that such discussions might result in giving the children and parents too much radical information on civic matters. The civic clubs have not met since the schools were closed, the members refusing to pay rent on halls, and claiming that the school-houses were built as the places where the simple truth and facts concerning government should be taught. It is probable, however, that if the schools are opened at all to the clubs, certain restrictions as to how much may be said on civic questions will be laid down. The opponents of civic centers and the politicians object to the enormous expense to which the city is subjected, although it appears that a large exposition park has recently been bought at an outlay of $300,000, while it is estimated that the cost of maintaining the social centers for one year is about $10,000. Just why the school commissioners should now change their position taken upon the re-organization of the board after the mix-up six months ago is hard to understand, but apparently they think that it is best to calm the people particularly as the "election day draweth nigh."

The principal cause of the trouble over

the civic centers seems to have been the fear of socialism by the political managers in the city. For some time they had been planning to control the school board. Their cry was that business men who understand "practical affairs" should be chosen and that all "fads and fancies" should be eliminated from the course of study. Professor Forbes of the University of Rochester was president of the board. He had given twelve years of excellent service in the regeneration of the schools. Knowing the objection to Professor Forbes, the civic betterment committee decided upon President Rhees of Rochester University as the ideal candidate. But the organization was so strongly entrenched that he was set aside for a high-grade business man who, it is reported, is too busy in his own enterprises to have much time to give to the city, and who beside is a friend and supporter of the machine. The only reason for the failure to select President Rhees was the personal animus of the political boss, George W. Aldridge, who had been opposed by Dr. Rhees in a recent congressional campaign. He at once dictated to his school commissioners that they close the schools as evening social centers. Thousands of people were forbidden to gather in the buildings erected with their money; but having control of the schools once more, the politicians are now trying to regain popular favor.[1]

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Social Motives for City Evangelization.—In an article in the *Christian City*, Dr. E. L. Earp, of the Drew Theological Seminary, summarizes the social motives for city evangelization that exist in New York City and other large cities of the country. He points out that these motives are to be found in the effect of unemployment, especially unemployment of men unable to obtain work when mothers and little children are compelled to work at hard labor; of widespread distribution of veneral diseases, endangering men, women and children in crowded tenements; lack of recreation opportunities which leads children to commit acts that make petty criminals of them and carry them before juvenile courts; extortion of "loan sharks" who prey upon workingmen; white slave traffic and street walking. In addition to the work of rescue ordinarily carried on to reclaim and relieve the victims, Dr. Earp emphatically points out the need of the assistance of a host of strong men and women of the churches to study and master the conditions that cause the greater part of our city problems.

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Milwaukee Social Work.—In a report covering the recent social survey of Milwaukee, Rowland B. Hayes, field secretary of the Playground and Recreation Association of America, recommended to the school board of that city the establishment of five social centers in the congested districts of the city and eight public playgrounds maintenance of which will cost $20,000 a year. The 1911 legislature authorized the board to institute such school extension work and it is planned to begin it in 1912.

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Recreation.—*The Playground* for January 1912 is devoted to the *Year Book of the Playground and Recreation Association of America.* It contains a list of playground commissions and associations in the United States, and a list of what cities "played" last year and how. The Association in 1911 received reports from 257 cities, which maintained 1543 playgrounds and employed 4132 men, exclusive of caretakers, and expended $2,736,506.16. Thirty-six of the cities employed 377 workers all the year round. In 88 cities the playgrounds were supported by city funds, in 83 by private funds, and in 72 by both; in 3 by state and municipal funds, in one by county funds, and in one by city and county funds. In 53 cities, 228 playgrounds were open all the year round, and in 112 there were 812 playgrounds open only during July and August. In 71 cities there were 287 playgrounds open from five to ten months. In 141 cities the grounds were open on holidays and in 57 on Sundays. In 1911 there were 115 playground associations, according to the *Year Book*, and 37 having playgrounds or recreation commissions, and 23 having both. In 67 cities there were 216 grounds kept open in the evening. Forty-eight cities reported that their school houses were used as recreation centers. In 19 cities bond issues for recreation purposes were authorized during the year to the amount of $4,445,500.

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[1] Prepared by Birl E. Shultz.

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Restriction of the Height of Buildings.—The New York committee on congestion is pushing in the state legislature a measure designed to restrict the height of buildings and prevent high buildings in undeveloped districts. The bill contains the following elements:

1. It amends the charter so as to give the Board of aldermen the power, with the approval of the board of estimate and apportionment, "to regulate and restrict the height, number of stories, proportions of lot areas which may be covered, ratio of volume of buildings to lot areas which may be actually occupied, and the distribution of such volumes of buildings to be hereafter erected in the city."
2. It also provides for the appointment by the board of estimate and apportionment of a commission to draft any such ordinance or ordinances and to make such recommendations in the premises as the board may determine and for the expenses of the commission.
3. It provides that the city may for this purpose be divided into various districts or zones, with appropriate restrictions for each.

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City Documents.—The New York public library has begun the publication, in its *Monthly Bulletin*, of a department of "Recent Accessories" compiled by Adelaide R. Hasse. A brief note of description and evaluation accompanies the more important titles. The first number (January) occupies ten pages.

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Des Moines Has First City Hall Under Commission Plan.—On the first of January, Des Moines dedicated its new, magnificent city hall, the first ever completed under the commission plan of government. It is regarded as a distinct achievement in adapting municipal buildings to the new ideals of city government. The main floor, reached by an artistic flight of marble steps, where the real business of the city is conducted, resembles the counting room of a large business corporation. There are no private offices nor roll top desks to hide idle clerks. Every facility is provided to enable the citizen to transact his business quickly and pleasantly. The floor above elegantly houses the legal department, the law library, the civil service commission, and other miscellaneous services.

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Lynn Municipal Market.—An agitation is in progress in Lynn, Mass., for the establishment of a municipal market where the people will be able to purchase staple foodstuffs directly from the producer and thereby eliminate the middlemen.

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Missouri River Sanitary Conditions.—Last December a Kansas commission met with commissions from Missouri and Nebraska to consider means to bring about better sanitation of the Missouri River. The Kansas commission was made permanent and Dr. S. J. Crumbine selected as its secretary. He is now endeavoring to interest the public health and marine hospital service in the problem and conducting a campaign to have every city on the Missouri from well up in the northwest to the Mississippi treat its sewage.

City Planning in St. Louis.—City planning recently received an impetus in St. Louis that will do a great deal toward accomplishing something in the way of carrying out the plans already made for a civic center and the improvement of the river front with additional boulevards and open spaces. Walter B. Stevens, who was secretary of the Louisiana Purchase Exposition commission, has been appointed permanent secretary of the city plan commission at a definite salary and with established headquarters in the new Municipal Courts building. The commission has been given an appropriation of $5000 to pay its expenses until April. Draughtsmen will be employed and plans already adopted by the commission will be drawn. Engineering work has, up to the present time, been delayed on account of the commissions having no money. The commission as it now exists can be said to be the outgrowth of a movement started several years ago by Mayor Wells and later taken up by the Civic League. In 1904 the mayor appointed a public buildings commission which made and formulated plans for the grouping of public buildings. This commission first presented the scheme for the proposed civic center with the new city hall, the municipal courts building and the public library as a nucleus. These three buildings have been completed and occupied. In 1907 the Civic League made a more extended survey of the city and they put forth their plan and also an elaborate scheme for the improvement of the river front.

In 1910 the City Plan Association was organized and its purpose was to unite a limited number of public spirited citizens to devote some of their time and means to the present and future development of the city. The association has issued a report covering their operations during the years 1910–11. The present city plan commission with its permanent secretary is the immediate outgrowth of this older organization.

At the first meeting of the commission tentative plans were suggested for the wrecking of several blocks between the river and Fourth street for use as a park with extensions of a broad river drive leading north and south. The drive suggested is to line the river front the full length of the city. Members of the commission believe such a scheme properly carried out would prove the biggest advertising feature of St. Louis could obtain. A similar water front on a more extensive scale recently approved by the Chicago city plan commission has created a favorable impression in that city and this plan is expected to act in the same manner in St. Louis. Glue factories and packing plants are to be shunted to the north and south sections of the city, thus restricting these industries to certain prescribed sections ridding the city of much offensive smoke and smell. How far the authorities can go in this restriction has not been learned, but the opinion is prevalent that any restriction of factory limits can be done through the police powers of the city.

The commission expects to work along broad lines including most every feature of civic improvement in the scope of its work, coöperating with other city departments and private associations working toward making St. Louis a better and more beautiful city. The question of the ways and means for the elimination of smoke, erection and maintenance of public comfort stations, additional parks and boulevards and the beautifying of streets, the erection and placing of monuments and statuary, will be considered by the commission. In fact it is expected to exercise an advisory control over all problems that concern a more comely city.

Just at this time Mr. Stevens and his staff are investigating the elimination of grade crossings and the elevation of railway tracks. A careful study of the problem as it exists in other cities, more particularly Chicago and Kansas City is under way with the intention of learning the methods and success of these cities with the hope of reaching the best solution of the situation as it presents itself in St. Louis. The board of public improvements is at work on the draft of an ordinance over which there is much controversy concerning the payment of damages resulting to adjacent property owners from the elevation of tracks. An ordinance passed in Kansas City in 1909 known as the Kansas City terminal railway ordinance is unique in this regard. Under it the city received from the Terminal Association $376,372.35 to reimburse property owners, with the attending feature that a two hundred year franchise was granted to the railway companies with many very valuable privileges. In the matter of the elimination of grades Chicago furnishes the most interesting example, $66,256,000.00 having been spent there for the elevation of tracks within the last few years.

The public library is taking an interest in the city plan movement and March *Bulletin* contained a bibliography of the material in the central library and its municipal branch in the city hall on this subject.[1]

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Denver's Civic Improvement.—Western cities, especially the ones in the far west have conditions to meet that differ widely from the cities in the east and middle west. They have to spend so much on their physical development and necessary improvements, that there is often but little for development along artistic and ornamental lines.

In spite of all of its drawbacks—youth, poverty, graft, greed, knockers, kickers—Denver has made remarkable progress in the way of civic improvements and is rapidly gaining a reputation for beauty and civic art. The Denver Artists Club, organized in 1893, has worked steadily and indefatigably for the best in art. To it much credit must be given for what has been achieved. Its preachment has been that art requires not only human creative energy but an appreciative public. The club holds its free exhibitions and works for the uplift and advancement of art in many directions. Through its influence the city art commission was instigated and established. This commission is composed of six members, who are appointed by the mayor and serve without pay. Only $500 per year is appropriated to pay the current expenses. Henry Reed a well known artist is chairman of the commission. To it are referred all matters pertaining to art, the architecture of public buildings, bridges, etc. The ornamantal lamp posts and beautiful lighting of the city which have attracted so much attention were among the first notable achievements of the commission. To it is assigned the supervision of the proposed civic center.

The general outline for the civic center has been decided upon and active work will be begun upon it as soon as bonds can be issued to pay for land adjoining the capitol. The work has been delayed on account of the decision pending in the supreme court of the state, which has just recently been rendered in favor of the civic center. Frederick McMonnies, who designed the pioneer monument for the city which he considers one of the best pieces of his work, in April will give advice upon the improvement of the civic center, especially as to the improvement of the plaza. Other eminent authorities will also be consulted.

It has been proposed that the entire franchise payment of the tramway company next year amounting to $60,000 be turned over to the civic improvement fund.

During the present administration of Mayor Robert W. Speer, Denver has attained an average of beauty that is not excelled by any other city. Many of its individual buildings, such structures as the new public library, the new post office, the two new cathedrals and many of the building blocks, would grace any city in the world. Two structures have been erected, which are monumental in character: the Welcome Arch, which commemorates the creation of the greater Denver, made possible by the charter of 1904, and the other is the white marble pavilion in Cheeseman Park dedicated last May to the memory of a pioneer of the city.

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[1] From Jesse Cunningham.

Just now the city is rejoicing over the first piece of art that has been ordered for the civic center. It is a replica of the famous children's fountain of Düsseldorf. Nadeau, the sculptor of the original at Düsseldorf will be the creator of the Denver replica. He and his assistants are at work now on the piece in Florence, Italy, and it will be delivered in Denver in the fall. The fountain will cost $9000 and will be paid for out of the park fund.

Civic improvements in other American and foreign cities are set before the citizens through the municipal paper *Municipal Facts* which is published and distributed free among the taxpayers of the city. Through the pages of this journal a wider meaning is given to art, not only architecture, painting and sculpture but music as well. The free concerts given in the Auditorium and in the parks are advertised and the programs are given in full. These concerts are attended by hundred of thousands during the year. When Madame Schumann-Heink was here in January she attended one of these concerts in the Auditorium and was so impressed that she asked permission to give a free concert to the people of Denver, and her request was eagerly granted. This was without exception one of the most magnificent concerts that was ever given in the west or anywhere. The audience was estimated at 15,000 and fully 25,000 people were turned away.

At the last session of the legislature a bill for the creation of a state art commission was defeated, but the measure will be taken up and pushed forward to consummation. Art commissions probably will be established in the towns and matters pertaining to art will be dealt with in a systematic way. This will bring about the realization of a high standard of civic art in Colorado that will place her cities in the front rank of the beautiful cities of the world.[1]

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City Planning in Boston. An approach to the city planning problem in Greater Boston was begun in 1889 when the Metropolitan Water Commission was created to provide a water system for the district. In 1893 a park commission was created, and about the same time a sewerage commission. Later the water and sewerage commissions were combined, and the total construction expenditures of these two commissions amounted to $40,000,000. The Park commission spent in the neighborhood of $11,000,000 for reservations and connecting boulevards. In addition to these, three other commissions have since been instituted: the railroad commission, the transit commission and the highway commission. The first of these approves the location of all railroad and railway lines in the district, and special commissioners of this body are appointed to supervise the abolition of grade crossings within the district. The transit commission has for a special function the construction of subways by direction of the state legislature.

Some years ago a board of survey was created for Boston. By far the greater portion of Boston has already been surveyed and mapped out into streets. Private enterprise is free to open up streets as it pleases, but unless these openings are in accordance with the plans in the office of the street commissioners or meet with their approval the commissioners have the power to refuse to accept a street. The highway commission constructs state roads at a cost of 75 per centum to the state and 25 to the county. The engineers give advice to local authorities and the commission holds one hearing in each county every year. Supervision of telephone and telegraph lines and automobiles has considerably limited its activities as to highways.

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[1] From Nellie K. Gravett, State Librarian, Denver.

In 1911, the legislature created a commission of three men to report upon the necessity and advise ways and means for making a plan for the Metropolitan District. This commission is known as the "Metropolitan Plan Commission" and will report in January, 1912. At the same session the legislature created a "Port of Boston Corporation" with an appropriation of $9,000,000 from the state to be spent for the improvement of Boston harbor.

There is now pending before the city council an ordinance to establish a Boston planning commission based upon a study of the best ordinances in existence. Its duties are to extend to a consideration of such subjects as the structural and sanitary safety of buildings; the prevention and relief of congestion of population and traffic; the control of fire; the proper distribution of buildings for purposes of residence, manufacturing, trade and transportation; the beautification of the city and the preservation of its natural and historic features; the extension of its water supply and sewerage disposal; the preservation, development and management of lands and buildings for public purposes; the coördination of transportation; the development of the water front; and the distribution of telephone, gas, electric light and other public utilities. This commission, which is to consist of five members, is to be appointed by the mayor from candidates selected by the Boston Chamber of Commerce, the Boston Society of Architects, and the United Improvement Association; and the chairman selected upon the proposal of the other four appointed members.

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Indianapolis Street Railways.—The local street railways in Indianapolis are operated by a single company. The franchise, granted in 1889, expires in 1933. A further franchise, to expire at the same time, was also granted, in order to provide for the entrance of interurban cars to the center of the city. The fares are low. Twenty-five tickets are sold for a dollar, including right of free transfer to other lines. Six tickets are sold for a quarter. The cash fare is five cents. As the city is widely extended, a single fare entitles a passenger to ride nearly twelve miles. The company is required to pave between its tracks. A franchise tax of $30,000 a year is paid to the city for park purposes. Extensions may be ordered by the city, which the company is required to build. Upon expiration of the franchise, the city may purchase the plant at the appraised value of the property, excluding franchise value; or a new franchise, shall be offered, at a competitive sale, and the occupying company shall have the right to bid. The power to order paving between tracks, to require extensions, and to regulate the service is vested in the board of public works, composed of three men, appointed by the mayor, and removable by him. The company is required to admit the cars of interurban lines to the use of its power and tracks, and to provide a central passenger and freight station therefor. Twelve such interurban roads, extending throughout Indiana and adjoining states, now make use of this privilege, giving a service of at least once an hour. This interurban business has greatly benefited the city.

The service furnished by the local company has, on the whole, been good, although some complaint has been made, no doubt justifiably. Friction has arisen over the failure or delay, of the board of public works in requiring the company to pave between its tracks, in parts of the city and make extensions. A committee of the Commercial Club after investigation, reported grave delinquency, on the part of the company, in these respects. It appears that the company has been able to secure indulgences from the city government in respect to the amount of work required by the city to be done, but it does not appear that the company has failed to comply with the orders of the board of public works actually made. The prosecuting attorney of the county may bring suit to forfeit the franchise, on the petition of five hundred property holders, if the company fails to perform its obligations, but the legal obligations of the company in respect to street paving and extensions, appear not to arise, except when it has received orders from the board of public works. .

Through a system of leases, of guaranteed dividends, and of stock ownership in one company, by another, the city company and the interurban roads have largely passed under the control of one or two holding companies, supposed to have common ownership. In these operations, street railway securities here, have been expanded by large amounts of water. The earnings of the local company, gross and net, are not made public here, but are understood to be large. Extensions of plant as usual require additional capital, from time to time, in order to keep pace with the growth of Indianapolis.

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Civil Service in Chicago.[1]—On the subject of reorganization the commission recommends that there be a civilian commissioner of police appointed by the mayor (under the civil service law he is the only person in the department whom the mayor can appoint without the usual civil service examination), to be assisted by three deputy commissioners. The first, to be charged with the enforcement of the laws and ordinances, the prevention of crime and the apprehension of criminals, the assignment and distribution of the active force and the regulation of traffic. To him will report all precinct commanders, the chief of the secret service, the chief of the traffic division, the motor cycle, marine and other special squads. The second deputy commissioner is to be charged with ascertaining and recording the efficiency of individuals and groups, the care and custody of city property in the department and the expenditure of money, the inspection of the personnel, stations, equipments and other departmental property, the instruction of officers and men, the supervision of departmental records and the receipt and investigation of all complaints of citizens. To him will report the drill master, the director of the schools of instruction, the inspectors of personnel and properties, the secretary of the department and the superintendent of properties. The third deputy commissioner is charged with the supervision of all questions on public morals, the supervision of saloons, cafés, restaurants, hotels, dance halls and summer parks, the supervision of the ambulance service, the supervision of police matrons and the censoring of all moving pictures and performances of all kinds, and to him will report inspectors of all moral conditions, the chief of the ambulance service and the chief matron.

Standards of examination for entrance into the service and promotion are recommended and present methods of transferring as a punishment or at the behest of outside influences, are shown to exist and condemned. Special duty assignments are shown to be sinecures and are to be discarded; certain corrections in vice rules and methods of handling vagrancy are submitted for the consideration of the city council. A scheme of indexing known criminals and undesirables and keeping it up to date is proposed for the consideration of the mayor and police commissioner.

During the investigation, charges of inefficiency were preferred against three inspectors, five captains, seven lieutenants and forty-one men; in addition to which one captain, one sergeant and six men resigned under charges; nine men were fined, three captains and one inspector resigned, without waiting for charges to be filed. The gambling squad operating out of headquarters is to be abolished and territorial responsibility fixed.

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[1] This note brings up to date the item appearing under section II, entitled, the "Investigation of Chicago Police," on p. 289.

Protection and Planting of Shade Trees.—*Park and Cemetery and Landscape Gardening* for January publishes the address of Mr. William Solotaroff, before the American Civic Association in Washington in December, on "Progress in Municipal Shade Tree Control." Mr. Solotaroff is secretary and treasurer of the shade tree commission of East Orange, N. J., and his work in this direction is well known throughout the country.

Mr. Solotaroff states in his address that in some of the commonwealths the chief bar to getting a shade tree law adopted is the telephone companies. Regarding the city of Washington he says that it has more shade trees and a greater variety than any of the capitals of Europe. The department for the planting and care of trees in Washington is known as the trees and parks division of the District of Columbia. It was organized in 1872. There are now over 95,000 trees along the streets of that city, all of which were planted under municipal control and paid for by the city. He believes that it is only when the planting and care of shade trees is vested in a special department that all the principles essential to secure the most satisfactory effects can be applied. This takes care of the choice of the particular species, the use of one variety on a street and the setting out at uniform distances apart. As things are now in most of our cities trees on our streets may be planted by individual landowners or public officials. The results obtained in cities where this task has been left to the individual owners have been very unsatisfactory. There are often half a dozen or more species of trees on one street, undesirable mixed with desirable, all shapes and varieties, set too closely or too far apart. In some cases also trees are not trimmed at all, or not trimmed properly.

Mr. Solotaroff dates the real progress in municipal control of shade trees from 1893 when the state of New Jersey passed a model law providing for the planting and care of shade trees on the highways of the municipalities of the state. Other states that have passed advanced laws in this direction are Massachusetts in 1899, and Pennsylvania in 1907. The laws of New Jersey and Pennsylvania are not of general application to all municipalities, but are local option laws. At the present time forty-six towns and cities in New Jersey have established shade tree commissions.

In 1904 the legislature of the state of Ohio granted cities the power to regulate the planting, control, and preservation of shade trees in cities, etc. In Cleveland there has been an active tree department since 1907. The laws and ordinances of a number of other states and cities are given in this interesting and valuable paper.

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Boston's Civic Service House.—Several years ago the Civic Service House initiated the policy of organizing the graduates of the local evening schools into alumni. These graduates show more loyalty to the school and to the neighborhood than day school graduates, who leave too young to get very definite convictions regarding their duties to their Alma Mater. This patriotism of the evening school graduates shows itself in many ways. For example, two of these clubs, one representing the graduates of the young men's school and the other of the young women's school, both affiliated with the Civic Service House, worked for several years to secure the establishment of the local evening high school. The account of their successful movement in which the House coöperated at every step follows:

> One of the neighborhood improvements which our club has devotedly worked for all this time has just been realized. The school committee has granted our demands and established a branch evening high school on the boundary line of the North and West Ends. The need of such a school in this neighborhood was first made known to them by a petition from our club for a civil service class

in the Eliot School. Later it was found that one class was not adequate to supply the demand of the young people of this neighborhood for that education which obtains in an evening high school. We secured over two hundred fifty names of young people who signified a strong desire to attend the classes of an evening high school if such were established in the vicinity. These names with a petition were presented to the mayor, city council and the school committee. We are gratified in the result of our effort.

The club is now engaged in the organization of another neighborhood improvement. It is circulating a petition among residents, business men and taxpayers of the North End for the enlargement of the North End Park and equipping it with gymnasium and recreational facilities.

The Civic Service House this year also initiated a plan of coöperation with the Boston Fine Arts Museum. Large groups of Italians from the congested sections are taken to the Art Museum Sunday afternoons. Free cars are provided. Sixty to seventy are accommodated in each trip and are conducted by an Italian guide and lecturer assisted by several volunteers. The women are even more interested than the men. Each local institution is reached in turn: the public night school groups, the church groups and the settlement groups. The women showed keenest interest in tapestry. Some of the men especially admired the fine painting of George Washington.[1]

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Park Civil Service Rules in Chicago.—Under the rules of the civil service board of the South Park commissioners of Chicago, issued in October, 1911, the examinations for positions are not restricted to applicants who are residents of Chicago, but are open to all, though the superintendent of employment may, by giving proper notice, require that applicants for a particular examination shall have resided in Cook County for at least one year. The examinations must be held not less than sixteen nor more than thirty days after the call has been made and the call must be made within thirty days after a vacancy occurs in the higher grades where no eligible list exists and within two days in the lower grades provided there is no active eligible list. Eligible lists in any case do not remain in force for more than two years.

The examinations must also be advertised by the insertion of notices in a Chicago daily paper having a circulation of at least 50,000 and in such other publications as in the judgment of the superintendent of employment would bring the examinations to the attention of persons qualified to fill the positions.

Temporary appointments may be made in certain emergencies but the restrictions are such that it is impossible to make a permanent appointment under the guise of a temporary one.

In the matter of removal it is the duty of any officer in charge of a distinct administrative branch to file charges against any employee under him if there be cause for removal of such employee. It is also the duty of the secretary of the civil service board to file charges when the records of the board show a *prima facie* case of cause for removal. In addition, charges may be filed by the park commissioners, by any one of them, by any executive under them, or, under certain conditions, by any citizen.

Nineteen specific causes for removal are listed though charges may be based on causes other than those enumerated. Probably the most interesting of the causes enumerated is political activity. The clauses covering this are so drastic that an employee is barred from practically any political activity, and this applies not only to city and county affairs but to state and federal as well.

As is customary the service is classified and graded, a grade being defined as comprising positions of substantially similar importance, authority and responsibility.[1]

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[1] From Philip Davis.

[1] Prepared by Edgar V. O'Daniel, of the New York Bureau of Municipal Research.

St. Louis Municipal Lodging House.—The most protracted cold spell in years brought into St. Louis this winter hundreds of shivering, thinly clad, homeless men. Perhaps the announcement by the chief of police that a place to sleep with a cup of coffee and a bite to eat would be provided for such men was responsible for the large numbers. There seemed to be an influx from all points of the compass and the old Four Courts building was turned into a municipal lodging house for the men. The applications here grew from a few hundred to the record mark of 1020 on January 12. In addition to this number several hundred more were taken care of in district police stations and private lodging houses. Old and young presented themselves in equal numbers, the ages ranging as low as eighteen and as high as seventy-five.

By the last of January the situation became so grave that a special meeting of the municipal assembly was called to act on an emergency ordinance appropriating $5000 to feed and care for the indigent poor and homeless during severe cold spells. The bill provides for a board composed of the mayor, president of the council and the speaker of the house of delegates. At the discretion of the board the money will be used to provide for the poor.

The commission was organized immediately following the passage of the ordinance and Dr. H. E. Kleinschmidt was appointed superintendent of the municipal lodging house. The city plans to give employment to all men who are willing and able to work. The street commissioner volunteered aid and provided shovels and brooms for street work. Each morning the superintendent visits the old Four Courts building to get men willing to work. Each man responding receives a coupon ticket; one coupon will pay for lodging, one for coffee and rolls and the third will obtain a meal of soup, hash, coffee and rolls at a restaurant. The city has contracted to redeem the meal coupons which are worth five cents. Men refusing to work will be denied relief, unless they are ill and physically unable, in which case they will be taken care of by the city. The state labor bureau gives aid in obtaining regular employment.

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Milwaukee City-Planning Commission and Skyscrapers.—In December the Milwaukee city-planning commission sent a message to the common council relative to the attempts to limit the height of buildings within the city which in one respect at least will attract attention. The message says:

> If the city instead of undertaking to limit the height of future buildings will grapple with and solve more urgent problems the matter of high buildings will take care of itself. The present law, which in one instance an attempt has been made to enforce, would limit the height of buildings to one and one-half times the width of the street upon which they are built. If the streets of the city were of a proper width there would be no objection to such a limitation, but by the same token, if the streets of the city were what they should be, there would not be the demand for high buildings that now exists. Like most American cities which have grown with great rapidity, Milwaukee streets have been built upon a hit and miss plan, with little or no consideration for the amount of traffic which they must bear. The modern science of street building recognizes the vast importance of a true and exact relationship between the thoroughfares and the business of the city. Perhaps no other feature of a city plan will do so much toward relieving the evils of congestion as the construction of scientifically arranged thoroughfares.

Referring to this message, the Chicago *Post*, December 23, said:

> Looked at in one way this indorsement of the skyscraper may seem about as necessary as an indorsement of Lake Michigan. Both are here and here to stay. But when it is remembered that Boston bars the cloud piercer and that sentiment in our own town was strong enough to put a limit on buildings, it is seen that the Milwaukee city planners are not emulating the Dutch conquest of Holland. The secondary point they (the

commission) make is decidedly worth while. "Take care of the traffic values of your streets and the skyscrapers will take care of themselves."

*

Playground Progress.—*The Playground* for January is devoted to the Year Book of the Playground and Recreation Association of America. It contains a list of playground commissions and associations in the United States, and a list of what cities "played" last year and how. The Association in 1911 received reports from 257 cities, which maintained 1543 playgrounds and employed 4132 men, exclusive of caretakers, and expended $2,736,506.16. Thirty-six of the cities employed 377 workers all the year round. In 88 cities the playgrounds were supported by city funds, in 83 by private funds, and in 72 by both; in 3 by state and municipal funds, in one by county funds, and in one by city and county funds. In 53 cities, 228 playgrounds were open all the year round, and in 112 there were 812 playgrounds open only during July and August. In 71 cities there were 287 playgrounds open from five to ten months. In 141 cities the grounds were open on holidays and in 57 on Sundays. In 1911 there were 115 playground associations, according to the Year Book, 37 having playgrounds or recreation commissions, and 23 having both. In 67 cities there were 216 grounds kept open in the evening. Forty-eight cities reported that their school houses were used as recreation centers. In 19 cities bond issues for recreation purposes were authorized during the year to the amount of $4,445,500.

*

Standardizing Municipal Park Reports.—E. T. Mische, Superintendent of Parks, at Portland, Oregon, published in the November number of *Park and Cemetery and Landscape Gardening,* an address which he read before the American Association of Park Superintendents, on "Standardizing Municipal Park Resorts." In the course of his brief paper he says:

> In the interest of real progress and of park development especially, it is desirable that reports on general and specific municiple affairs should be periodically made, and on occasion these reports should be harmonized for all cities. General annual reports should give figures of population, assets and indebtedness, revenues and expenditures. Following these in detail should be departmental reports showing the budget appropriations and other resources, expenditures classified in sufficient detail to permit of intelligent analysis and showing just what has been accomplished with each outlay. The need of standardizing municipal park reports is that it makes for a popular understanding of work accomplished or of work left undone which should have been done; properly followed up, it supplies an efficiency of method that is a great assistant in administration . . . Reports of this sort furnish a basis for comparison of the work of this kind going on in the various cities.

*

Winnipeg Testing Municipal Control of Public Utilities.—Winnipeg is making a comprehensive attempt to control and operate its public utilities and affords an interesting field of study to any one interested in municipal ownership. The telephone system owned and operated by the government is considered one of the best on the continent. The city has secured an unrivaled water supply by sinking artesian wells and conserves this by drawing upon the Red River by high pressure pumping stations for flushing and fire protection. The municipality owns and operates its own asphalting plant, its own stone quarries, its own garbage and incinerating plant. It is now negotiating with the Winnipeg Electric Company to acquire the electric railway, power and light systems, and before long it will own its own gas plant, an appropriation having been voted for this purpose.

*

St. Louis Police to Have Merit System.—Upon the suggestion of A. A. B.

Woerheide, the board of police commissioners of St. Louis, of which he is president, adopted the following plan for selecting and maintaining the efficiency of the police force of the city: Civil service examination for all applicants for position of probationary patrolman; training of all probationaries and the establishment of a school of instruction; a system of efficiency marks to determine promotion; the creation of a medical division; and the establishment of a gymnasium. The outline of instruction includes a training in the rules and regulations of the police department, the law of evidence and preparation of evidence, elementary criminal law and the rights of officers in making arrests.

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German Ambassador on German City Government.—Count Johann Heinrich von Bernstorff, the German Ambassador in Washington, made an interesting address to the members of the City Club in New York on December 4, on "German City Government." His discussion of German municipal government was a comprehensive one, and among other things he described the operations of modern German cities, approaching the subject from a historical standpoint. Among the topics he discussed are "Choice of town officers," "Method of town planning," "The requirements for light and air," "Handling of the housing problem," using certain cities as great examples.

⁂

Massachusetts Civic League Annual Meeting.—The Massachusetts Civic League held its annual meeting in Boston, November 24. The League is state wide in its scope, centering its efforts on certain community problems whose solution is sought chiefly through state legislation. The problem particularly emphasized was housing, it being pointed out that many attempts had been made for an improvement in housing conditions in the towns but that nothing comprehensive had been done. The Civic League apparently will devote itself to coördinating the interest in the state for the solution of that problem.

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Kansas City Mayor Opposed to Red Tape.—Mayor Brown of Kansas City has started a movement to do away with red tape in connection with permits for building operations in his city. In an editorial,[1] the Kansas City *Star*, comments upon his effort:

> Red tape does not make for efficiency. It merely blocks the way for doing things that need to be done. The efficient government is the one that has the least to do with red tape; a system that has the shortest and most direct route between the thing to be done and the department charged with the responsibility to do it.

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Harrisburg Billboard Nuisance.—In a letter to the *Star Independent* of Harrisburg, Mr. J. Horace McFarland, president of the American Civic Association, pointed out to the people of Harrisburg in an emphatic way that the city could, if it chose, collect approximately five thousand dollars in fines for permitting ugly billboards within its borders in violation of ordinances. Mr. McFarland is now president of the Harrisburg board of trade and it is expected that he will conduct a vigorous campaign against the billboard nuisance or the "civic small-pox" as he calls it.

⁂

Life of Municipal Bonds.—New York City has at last ceased the indefensible practice of paying for pavement construction and reconstruction by issuing fifty-year bonds. Assuming that the life of a pavement is fifteen years, such a practice means that the tax-payers, after the forty-fifth year, must pay interest and sinking fund charges on four pavements covering one area. It is a wonder that any administration ever initiated such methods of finance.

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[1] December 17.

BOOK REVIEWS

The Immigration Problem. By Jeremiah W. Jenks, Ph.D., LL.D., and W. Jett Lauck, A.B. New York: Funk and Wagnall Company.

The investigations of the federal immigration commission, conducted through 1908–9–10, mark an era in the discussion of the economic phases of the immigration problem. It is not necessary to go back of these investigations, which collated previous investigations and made at once a more varied and intensive use of statistics than had been made before in this field. Professor Jenks was a member of the commission and Mr. Lauck was associated with the commission's work. The present volume summarizes the forty-two volumes report of the commission.

It should be said at once that the book under review is not an all-round discussion of the immigration problem. The immigration commission worked from a federal standpoint, with a particular aim of gathering facts and formulating proposals for federal action in the regulation of immigration. The sphere of federal action and even of state action would be necessarily restricted to a few broad lines, if the public school problem were left out of sight. These lines would be, roughly, restriction and distribution of immigration, and new forms of police protection called for by the new conditions which immigration creates. It would further, from the federal and state standpoint, be of importance to know the effects of immigration on the growing problem of the standard of living and the relations of capital and labor. Those fields of the immigration problem which the commission's investigations did not cover, and which are not prominent in this volume, are the ultimate biological influence of immigration on the future American stock; the influence of immigration as bringing new strains of social heredity into the American stream. And it is worthy of note that the volume does not attempt to describe and place a value on those elements of the present day native civilization which will be influenced, perhaps for better, perhaps for worse, by immigration. In other words, the commission and the authors of this book have not attempted a synthetic study of immigration but a practical analysis, from the governmental standpoint, of immigration problems.

This statement should be qualified in the measure, that where a thorough and authentic treatment is given to the economic aspects of the subject, only a sketchy treatment is given the deeper social and ethnic aspects. Probably these deeper problems, which are recondite and even as problems are only faintly recognized by students as yet, do not belong properly in a volume of this kind. To illustrate the summary treatment of some social complexities, one may quote from the opening chapter:

> The effect of immigration upon the morals of the American People, as shown by:
>
> (a) The criminal immigrant. The moral characteristics of the various races may be indicated by the number of crimes and the character of the crimes committed by them.
>
> (b) The social evil and the white slave traffic, indicated in part by court records and observations of social workers and special investigators.
>
> (c) The immigrant pauper: a study of the immigrants in the charity hospitals and of the relief given by charitable societies to immigrants.

It is obvious that no adequate conclusions as to the effect of immigration on American morals could be based on the study outlined in the above quotation.

With these exceptions made, one may say that Dr. Jenks and Mr. Lauck have given the public an indispensable book. A review of many thousand words would be required merely to note the practical questions, bristling with immediate application, which are covered both suggestively and concretely.

The various sub-headings in the book give an idea of the range of its contents: "Causes of Immigration;" "Types of Immigrant Communities;" "The Immigrant in Agriculture;" "Immigrant Institutions" (the discussion of immigrant banks is vital to every community that has a foreign element); "Living Conditions and Congestion;" "The Immigrant as a Dynamic Factor in Industry" (this and connected chapters are models of accuracy, careful selection of material, and close reasoning. They break the problem up into its elements and compel thought even in the most casual reader); "European and Mexican Immigrants;" "Agencies of Protection, Distribution and Assimilation;" "Assimilation and Progress;" "Naturalization and Interest in Public Affairs;" "School Attendance and Progress."

The survey moves forward toward a discussion of "Legislation and Administration." A condensed history of immigration legislation leads up to a statement and analysis of the present laws, and a final chapter on "Remedies" contains the majority and minority recommendations of the immigration commission and an independent discussion by the authors of this volume. The discussion is confined to those functions already acknowledged as clearly within the power of the federal government, to wit, the restriction and supervision of the incoming immigrant stream. The authors make it plain on occasions throughout the book that in their judgment some check should be placed on the influx of cheap labor which is operating to lower the wage scale and to multiply social problems through congesting in immigrant communities. The case is strongly made; a discussion of the general failure of American communities and of our school systems to adopt far-reaching measures toward socializing the immigrant, could have made the argument still stronger. Not only is the unlimited influx from Europe creating temporary backward movements in industry and politics, but down to the present our state and city governments, as social engines, have utterly failed to do their part in helping assimilation on the one hand or preserving immigrant virtues on the other. The practical result, from the standpoint of American institutions, is identical, whosover the fault may be, and the authors of this volume concur with the majority and minority reports of the Commission in urging the reduction of the rate of immigration at least of unskilled labor. The various means that have been proposed for this reduction are outlined impartially, and the authors suggest a combination of the several methods of illiteracy tax, discriminating head tax, and restriction to a fixed number of immigrants from any one country during any year.

The volume gives in an appendix the present immigration law with proposed amendments as suggested by the immigration commission. There are many valuable statistical tables dealing with political condition, illiteracy, ability to speak English, congestion, transient immigration, industrial distribution, etc. etc.

John Collier.

New York.

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Short Ballot Principles. By Richard S. Childs. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin and Company.

Mr. Childs has written a book on *Short Ballot Principles* with incidental remarks on other phases of our political life. The book is interesting because of its originality. It is almost unique in that Mr. Childs, though he would ordinarily be classed as a reformer, writes in a spirit of charity.

Practical politicians generally regard reformers as persons filled with envy, malice and all uncharitableness, hypocritically seeking access to the flesh-pots of Egypt for themselves, while abusing the experienced servants of the public, who have been honored with the public confidence. The real convictions of practical politicians rarely find adequate expression in the press because of their instinctive and almost universal dislike for newspaper notoriety. They regard reformers as notoriety seekers, and have no wish to emulate them in this respect. Reformers ordinarily account for this dislike of notoriety on the theory that the ways of politicians are dark and that naturally they shun the sunlight of public inspection.

Mr. Childs shows us plainly that we owe a debt of gratitude to the particular men who govern us. He admits what is the fact that we can't expect them to do all the work of running our exceedingly complicated political machinery without pay and that generally we pay but one salary for this unofficial service and official service too. In our desire to have what we think is democratic government and to attend to all the details in person, we have elaborated our electoral machinery and patiently vote for clerks, constables and dog catchers, seldom reflecting that we are only enabled to do this by the devoted labors of those who arrange our complicated ballots for inspection on election day. We are accustomed to complain that bosses make the nominations to suit themselves, but when we delegate the job to a selected committee of reformers we seldom approve the result.

Mr. Childs proves by example and illustration that there is a limit to the number of persons for whom we can intelligently vote at one session. He says that election day is a misnomer, we ought to call it "elections day" when we vote to fill forty offices at once.

Mr. Childs has charity in his heart for both reformers and politicians. He does not ascribe to either the characters they each give to the other. He seems to think that in the existing conditions of our society they both have been evolved as natural products with useful functions to perform, somewhat akin to the functions of the germs that inhabit our bodies and continually war upon each other, thus preserving a happy balance.

The reviewer of a "best selling novel" always avoids revealing too much of the plot for fear the interest of possible readers shall be satiated in advance. Upon the same principle, it would not do to disclose here the novel and exciting argument which Mr. Childs presents. He has no patent remedy to purify political life and give us good government over night; he admits that we must do some work to achieve this heavenly goal, but he does disclose principles of real short cuts so that the old calf path we have been following through the woods of our communal life shall really and truly be shortened and made to advance on level ground instead of winding over unnecessary hills and rocks and through the morasses of municipal corruption.

Not only does Mr. Childs make plain the principles which should govern those who are to be in good standing in the strictest sect of the short balloters, but he gives much valuable advice regarding methods of nomination, commission government, constitutional limitations, or the absence of limitations, upon legislative power, the structure of legislative machinery and other interesting details of government, for which opinions he begs his readers to hold only himself accountable and not visit any supposed sins of his upon the devoted head of the distinguished President of the Short Ballot Association, the Honorable Woodrow Wilson, of New Jersey.

The cleverness of this book makes it none the less a valuable contribution to the study of the art of government and the adaptation of our governmental structure to the real needs of a democracy, o the end that we may enjoy an intelligent, responsive and responsible government.

Lawson Purdy.

New York.

Woman's Part in Government. By William H. Allen. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co., 1911.

If one did not know who wrote *Woman's Part in Government*, the most sympathetic friend, possible as well as the not-yet-voter, would say, it is a book evidently written with all the prejudices of ages gone by, from a distinctly masculine point of view for the masculine reader. No woman, no matter how broad or tolerant her view, will fail to see the scarcely veiled antagonism of Dr. Allen's attitude. He sacrifices his subject to along drawn-out statistical program. This reminds one of the teacher who asked a pupil how many of twelve sheep would remain in a pen if seven jumped out, and he replied, "None" Upon being corrected as to the mathematical solution, he replied, "You may understand arithmetic, but you don't understand sheep."

While *Woman's Part in Government* is divided under three heads, namely: (a) to do efficiently what her position requires of her as an individual member of society, (b) as a member of voluntary non-official organizations and groups, (c) as a "direct, conscious influencer of public opinion and official action"—it is the last division that sets forth the chief purpose of this book.

Dr. Allen gives his positive assurance that women will have the vote, whether they want it or not; it is one of the inevitable things he does not seem able to prevent. At the same time, he points out innumerable ways in which women may continue to exert their nfluence, without franchise. He accentuates what might be a very compromising position of middle-man in the operation of public affairs. The versatility of talent he requires is amazing. An ordinary woman with no ballot, no diplomas, no pay, no anything, would have a hard time keeping the pace set for her as a diplomat and statistician in the rôle she would have to play in her part as "influencer of public opinion and official action." We know there is a large number of women who are awake to their duties as members of communities, who have under opposition defeated plans for municipal mismanagement and maladministration.

If women can be such potent factors in the contributions they make toward a higher social order, such as Dr. Allen points out can be secured through their coöperation for better sanitary and housing conditions, pure water, milk, food and drugs, clean streets, efficient public officers, good schools, and organized charity, why not put a little faith in her ability to cast a ballot with understanding. Can responsibility be placed where there is distrust? Can trust be placed without power of execution? With all woman has contributed to civic righteousness, civic effort for beauty, health and morals, is it fair to assume that she is not prepared for the responsibilities of citizenship? Woman's vote, and active part in government may not bring about greater reforms, "presto change," but as soon as she is allowed to feel her responsibility as a citizen, she will be able to improve those things for which she strives, in the conservation of child life, child efficiency, and regulation of child labor, as well as in every question affecting the home, city or state that is embraced in the sphere she does not aim to revolutionize, but to remold. It is not to be presumed that the whole mass of women is going to be able to prove its "trusteeship" at once. In comparison with the last twenty-five years, think of what the women of twenty-five years hence will know, and be. What wealth of opportunity and appreciation will be theirs, and much of it gained by their intimate knowledge of what the women of this age have done.

There are some chapters in this book, if you take them simply for their value as guides in constructive work, that bring immense satisfaction to the worker, who has gone into any one of the problems mentioned, with the methods that are endorsed and brought before the public, by one who is so sure he is on the right track, as is Dr. Allen. It is a question, however, whether the women, presumably of the kindergarten class, whom Dr. Allen's arguments might convince, will ever avail themselves of the inestimable privilege of reading his book.

H. M. Dermitt.

Pittsburgh.

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Handbook of Settlements. Edited by Robert A. Woods and Albert J. Kennedy. New York: Charities Publication Committee for the Russell Sage Foundation. 1911, 326 pp.

This valuable handbook published by the Russell Sage Foundation affords convincing evidence of the vitality of the settlement principle in the United States. The last edition (1905) of the handbook published by the College Settlements Association included 204 American settlements; in this volume the number has increased to 413. The editors have listed the settlements of the country by states, presenting a well organized and surprisingly comprehensive array of facts with regard to social work in this field. There are represented thirty-two states, the District of Columbia, and the Hawaiian Islands. An address list also indicates sources of information regarding settlement work in England and other foreign countries. So far as possible the editors furnish a statement as to the history, activities, residents and workers, and literature of each settlement.

One is impressed by the amount and value of the bibliographical information included in the handbook. This is not confined to references on settlement work in general and on the history and activities of the various settlements. In addition extensive lists of social studies and other publications by residents and workers are provided. Thus is exhibited the great and growing influence exerted by the settlements in bringing about action for social betterment by municipality and state.

For the purpose of facilitating communication between settlements and of bringing about helpful comparison of activities and methods this volume is admirably adapted. It will open to social workers of all classes a roll of kindred spirits in all parts of the country and thus will promote solidarity and sympathetic coöperation.

William H. Glasson.

Trinity College, Durham, N. C.

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Civic Bibliography for Greater New York. Edited by James Bronson Reynolds for the New York Research Council. Published by the Charities Publication Committee for the Russell Sage Foundation. New York. 1911.

Only one who has tried to find his way amid the wilderness of books and magazine articles dealing with civic and social problems can appreciate the task set for themselves by the compilers of the *Civic Bibliography for Greater New York.* Just how extensive the wilderness is may be understood for the first time, even by those who have wandered in it, when they see this closely printed volume of 296 pages containing only author, title, date, abbreviated name of publication, the initial of the library where it may be found, and a phrase or at most a sentence of characterization.

The contents of the book are arranged under fifteen heads beginning with description, history and population and then listing whatever has been published on such subjects as economic conditions, public health, housing, education, etc. The value of such a compilation to the student or to an investigator who wishes to secure a fairly adequate knowledge of his special subject is very great. The hours that would be spent searching card catalogues in ten widely separated libraries are reduced to minutes and those minutes made more profitable than the hours are likely to have been. If a few books or articles have been skipped, or if one is not listed under all the subjects which it covers, this must be forgiven in a first edition.

The libraries whose contents have been listed in the Civic bibliography include the Lenox, Brooklyn Public, Columbia University and collections which are especially strong in civic and social subjects such as those of the City Club and the School of Philanthropy. Over one hundred and fifty magazines have been examined and their contents noted. At the end of the volume is an unusually complete index.

John Ihlder.

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ARTICLES OF MUNICIPAL INTEREST IN RECENT PERIODICALS

General

Holmes, J. H. New Ideals and the City, *Survey*, December 2, 1910. (Cities have had three distinct stages of development, as field for political exploitation, business administration, social administration.)

City Government and Socialism, *Nation*, November 16, 1911. (The vote for socialistic city officials due to the dissatisfaction of men with bad city conditions and belief that Socialists look upon city government as an opportunity of benefiting the community.)

Heaton, J. P. Schools for Mayors, *Survey*, December, 9 1911. (An outline of the school started by Mrs. Harriman under supervision of the bureau of municipal research for the training of men in public service.)

Smith, H. L. Direct Legislation in California, *Nation*, December 11, 1911.

Brown, J., Jr. Initiative, Referendum and Recall, *Atlantic*, January 1912.

Bester, A. E. Latest in Government, *Chautauquan*, December, 1911. (An article on new things in government in general: Nothing New Concerning City Good.)

Housing Problems

Coöperative Homesteading, *Survey*, November 25, 1911. (Brief outline of tentative bill of homestead commission regarding aid to city workingmen in acquiring small homes in the suburbs.)

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Municipal Art

Seton, E. T. If Da Vinci Came to Town, *American City*, November, 1911. (A plea to architects to break away from slavish imitation of Greece, and a demand for more color in buildings.)

Hamilton, John J. What Government by Commission has Accomplished in Des Moines, *Annals of the American Academy*, November, 1911. (Great faults of old government—politics and lack of responsibility. Good results of new plan. Mayor and councils tend to become experts. Greater democracy. More civic pride.)

Higgins, Richard I. Results of Commission Government in Kansas City, Kansas, *Annals of American Academy*, November, 1911. (A report very favorable to commission plan.)

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Woodruff, C. R. Simplified City Government, *Yale Review*, January, 1912. (Shows how we are breaking away from check and balance theory in city government. This form of government will not run itself without good men.)

Percy, Hon Walker. Birmingham under Commission Plan, *Annals of the American Academy*, November, 1911. (A report that the commission plan has been very successful.)

Jones, Wm Carey. Berkeley, California, under Commission Form of Government, *Annals of the American Academy*, November, 1911. (This report shows lowered taxes, less crime, great improvement.)

Spokane's New Charter, *American City*. (This article shows the advanced form of commission government in a city of over 100,000 population and explains the preferential voting system and other new provisions).

Arguments for and against, results on commission government. Jones, W. C., Powers, L. G., Wooldbridge, A. P., Bates, F. G., Fairlie, J. A., Shambaugh, B. F., Scroggs, W. C., Macgregor, F. A., Bucklin, James W., Matthews, John, M., Wilcox, Delos F., Gardner, C., C., Gilbertson, H. S., Peters, James S., Cooper, Walter G., Carpenter, Dunbar F., Holly, Charles C., Crosby, John Silvernail, A. D., Cheesborough, A. R., Dean, S. A. *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, November, 1911.

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Curtis, H. S. The Need of a Comprehensive Playground Plan, *American City*, December, 1911. (Shows need of thorough investigation and planning before making playgrounds.)

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National Municipal League Convention, 1911, *American City*, December, 1911. (A review of the National Municipal League Convention of November 13–16 at Richmond, Virginia.

Mason, G. College Men in Practical Politics, *Outlook*, September 9, 1911.

Fesler, M. Relation of Civic and Commercial Organizations to Municipal Government, *American City*, November, 1911. (Some practical suggestions as to the most effective division of work between civic and commercial organizations, and for promoting of harmony with municipal administration.)

Municipal Boards and Commissions

Johnson, F. R. Board of Public Welfare of Kansas City, *Survey*, December, 1911. (Gives a review of the principles laid down by the board and a list of its departments with some of their real work.)

City Planning

Jenner, J. Regulation of City Building, *Survey*, November 10, 1911. (Advocates making the city home-like through more city planning instead of making it a "show-place." Provision of churches, clubs, halls, and settlements as part of centers.)

Jenner, J. Chicago and Her Lake-Front, *Survey*, January 6, 1912. (An article which gives a brief outline of Chicago's new lake-front plans.)

Nolen, J. Putting a City-plan into Action, *American City*, December, 1911. (If cities have not enough powers for city planning must get them from legislature. Shows short-sighted planning does not pay, that city planning is better and therefore American cities must have greater borrowing power to carry out municipal improvements.

Adams, John Young. Problems and Achievements of the Art Commission, *American City*. (Artistic and practical difficulties that arise in the selection of public monuments and their settings.)

Municipal Finances and Franchises

Curtis, V. Case of Voluntary Subscriptions towards Municipal Expenses, *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, November, 1911. (A case in which Everett, Washington, was voted dry, and yet no appropriation or tax had been levied to take the place of the $421,800 lost from liquor licenses. In this case the money was raised by voluntary subscription.)

Holcomb, A. N. Wilcox's municipal Franchises, *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, November, 1911. (A review of Dr. Wilcox's book.)

Moving Pictures

Collier, John. "Movies" and the Law, *Survey*, January 20, 1912. Features of interest in the report of the committee on moving pictures appointed by Mayor Gaynor. Report defines motion-picture theatre, and suggests regulations.)

Sewage

Fuller, G. N. Problem of Sewage Disposal, *American City*, December, 1911. (Importance of treating each locality as an individual problem. Some typical examples of actual projects.

Smoke Prevention

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Owens, T. S. Standards of Smoke Prevention, November, 1911.

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Jerome, Mrs. A. H. The Playground as a Social Centre, *American City*. (Shows the development of the child by contact with his fellows in play.

Wilson, Woodrow. The Need of Citizenship organization, *American City*, November, 1911. (An analysis of civic and social centre movements and a statement of how they solve modern problems.)

Social Work

Calder, J. The Engineer in Social Service, *Survey*, January 20, 1912. (Demands social training for engineer. Not on line of municipal government.)

Garrett, R. Baltimore Social Service Corporation, *Survey*, January 20, 1912. (Gives a good outline of the corporations departments and their work.)

Streets

Dodge, Louis A. The Public Belt Railroad of New Orleans, *American City*, December, 1911 (A system which furnishes terminal facilities for railroads, industries and a method of handling garbage.

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Philips, H. An Englishman's View of New York Strike, *Survey*, November 25, 1911. (An article in which is contrasted the attitude of the English authorities in the London dockers strike with Mayor Gaynor's attitude in street cleaners' strike. Very unfavorable to Mayor Gaynor.)

Robinson, C. M. Width and Arrangement of Streets, *American City*, December, 1911. (A review of Mr. Chas. M. Robinson's book of same name.)

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Street Lighting as a Feature of Municipal Improvement, *American City*. December, 1911. (A description of the Magda tungsten lighting system of Warren, Ohio.)

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Vacant Lot Cultivation

City Gardens versus Hoodlumism, *Review of Reviews*, November, 1911. (A review of an article by Mr. Jacob A. Riis in the *Craftsman*. An article which advocates recreation school houses and shops and city gardens for street boys.)

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NATIONAL
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THE TAXATION OF FRANCHISES IN CALIFORNIA

BY PROFESSOR CARL C. PLEHN

University of California

A LITTLE over thirty years ago after a period of popular agitation against the Chinese the railroads and the "money power," California adopted a new constitution, which at that time was held up to the world as the acme of radicalism.[1] It proved, however, far less radical than was feared. Now, again, and all within two years, California has attracted wide attention as a state that is prone to make daring experiments in matters of government. She has adopted, by large popular majorities, the direct primary, including the senatorial and presidential primary, the initiative, an enlarged use of the referendum, the recall of all elective officers including judges, women's suffrage, the bifurcated legislative session, county home rule under freeholders' charters, an employers' liability law, a public utilities commission law, constitutional provision for municipal ownership of public utilities, and a new tax system, together with other lesser so-called radical measures. While the subject of this paper, the taxation of franchises, is a product of both the old and the new radical movements, it is not in itself radical in character, on the contrary it is an experiment in the direction of justice in taxation that the most conservative state might try to advantage.

The constitution of California, adopted in 1879, contained certain provisions in regard to taxation, so novel as to arouse wide interest. Among them may be mentioned: the taxation of mortgages, as representing an interest in the property by which they were secured, in the hope of making the money-lender pay the tax; the separate listing of land, apart from the improvements upon it; the assessment of cultivated and of uncultivated lands of the same quality and similarly situated at the same rate; the assessment of land in small divisions; and the taxation of franchises. The experiment in regard to the taxation of mortgages broke down in 1899 and was finally abandoned in 1910, at the time of, but not as a part of, the adoption of a new system of taxation. That experiment may be regarded as having given a negative result, for it demonstrated, in a peculiarly clear and convincing manner, that the tax on the mortgage was inevitably shifted to the borrower. But, just as in many scientific experiments, a negative result is as valuable as an affirmative one, in that it adds to the sum of human knowledge, so this experiment has been worth while. The provisions as to the listing and assessment of land may seem to be small details of administrative procedure, but they have proved to be of great service in the direction of greater accuracy and certainty in tax administration, and have been copied, or rediscovered, as in the case of New York, in a great many other states.

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[1] Readers not familiar with what the Hon. James Bryce has called "that surprising document by which California is now governed" will find a convenient summary of it in his *American Commonwealth.*

The inclusion of franchises in the list of taxable property brought striking results, almost at once, in so far as the taxation of the great public service corporations was concerned. But in its wider application to other classes of companies, it had a fitful life until new vigor was infused into it by the changes made at the time of the adoption of the new system of state taxation in 1911. The change which gave it new life was the transfer to the state of the taxation of all franchises of every kind and nature and the prohibition of the imposition of any taxes thereon by the cities or other divisions of local government.[2] This change has made it practically impossible to evade the taxes on franchises.

That municipalities should be debarred from taxing the franchises granted to street railways, gas and electric companies, water companies, telegraph and telephone companies and others using the public streets and from taxing the franchises of other classes of companies doing business in the cities, may seem at first sight an anomaly. The anomaly is, however, not so great as it seems. In the first place, all the rest of the property in the cities has been practically exempted from the payment of any state tax. In the second place, the cities are not debarred from obtaining revenue from the granting of the franchises. But that revenue must take the form of a rental for the franchises, regarded as public property. In fact, since 1897, all companies to which any municipality has the power to grant the use of the public streets must pay to the municipality, after the first five years, at least 2 per cent of the gross receipts obtained from the enjoyment of the franchises, and the cities are at liberty to drive a better bargain if they can. But all the taxes, in the narrower sense of that term, levied upon the franchises go to the state. In the case of all the public service corporations, except water companies, the taxes paid to the state are computed upon the basis of the gross receipts, but they are expressly declared to be taxes upon the property and franchises, and are in lieu of all other taxes thereon. In the case of all the other corporations, including mercantile, manufacturing, and mining, the franchise is considered to be the equivalent of the corporate excess, that is, the difference between the aggregate value of all the corporation's holdings, as shown by the value of the stock and of the bonds and the value of its tangible property that is placed upon the rolls of the counties.

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[2] The sole exception is that taxes for the payment of the principal and interest of city, county, and district bonds outstanding when the tax system was changed, are nominally assessed against the franchises, although paid by the state out of the proceeds of its taxes.

The substance of the change is, that, while heretofore, franchises of every class have been taxable in the same manner as any other property for state, county, and municipal purposes, they are now taxable for state purposes only. Moreover, while, heretofore, only the conspicuous special franchises of the public service companies have been regularly and effectively reached, now, these, as well as all others, are reached and taxed.

The full significance of the present system of taxing franchises cannot be understood without going back to its first introduction in the constitution of 1879. Its history since then is full of instruction, not alone as to the nature of the present franchise tax in California, but also as certain very fundamental principles in connection with the taxations of corporations everywhere.

No distinct mention of franchises, as taxable property, is to be found in the old constitution of 1849, nor in the codes or the statutes, prior to 1880. Still the definition of taxable property was, even at that time, broad enough to include franchises, and there is some evidence that they were occasionally taxed. But in the long article on revenue and taxation in the constitution of 1879 there are two references to the taxation of franchises. The first is in the definition of taxable property, which reads: "The word 'property,' as used in this article and section, is hereby declared to include moneys, credits, bonds, stocks, dues, franchises, and all other matters and things, real, personal, and mixed, capable of private ownership; . . . ." The second is in the provision for the application of the unit rule in the taxation of railroads, which reads: "The franchise, roadway, roadbed, rails and rolling stock of all railroads operated in more than one county in this state shall be assessed by the State Board of Equalization at their actual value, ..." The origin of these phrases is therefore of interest.

An examination of the Debates and Proceedings of the Constitutional Convention[3] shows that intricate as the matter is, the members of the

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[3] Debates and Proceedings of the Constitutional Convention of the State of California, convened at the City of Sacramento, Saturday, September 28, 1878. E. B. Willis and P. K. Stockton, official stenographers. Sacramento, State Printer, 1880. Hereafter, in this article, referred to as "Debates and Proceedings."

the convention had a very definite plan of taxation in mind which they expressed by including the franchises of corporations among the taxable property. The word "franchises" as indicating a class of taxable property appears in the records of the convention for the first time in a resolution introduced by Mr. Dudley, of Solano, the very first resolution to be introduced with reference to taxation. It provided for an article on Taxation, the first section of which was to read: "Taxation shall be equal and uniform throughout the state. All property in this state, not exempt under the laws of the United States, except property belonging to the state, county, or other municipal corporation, shall be taxed in proportion to its value, to be ascertained as provided by law. The word 'property,' as used in this article and section, is hereby declared to include all moneys, credits, dues, franchises, investments in bonds, stocks, joint stock companies, and all other matters and things capable of ownership and having value in exchange."[4] Whether the use of the term franchises in this connection originated with Mr. Dudley is not clear. That gentleman's chief interest, as it appeared later, was in the second section of his resolution which provided for an income tax and he had nothing to say, in regard to the taxation of franchises, in the subsequent debates.[5]

As the debates proceeded it gradually became clear that the politico-social origin of the idea that franchises should be taxed was to be found in the movement for the taxation of mortgages, credits, and all forms of intangible property.[6] The proposal to call a convention for the revision of the constitution was made sometime before the outbreak of those popular agitations which afterwards played so large a part in the decision of the people to hold the convention and which in large measure determined the choice of the delegates. Many of the delegates insisted that the real cause of the calling of the convention was the dissatisfaction of the people with a decision of the Supreme Court, reversing previous decisions, and holding that mortgages were not taxable property under the old constitution.[7] The platforms of several of the dominant party factions in the convention had declared for the taxation of mortgages and other credits, or that all property should be taxed no matter what its character was.[8]

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[4] Debates and Proceedings, p. 95.

[5] It is interesting to note that the definition of taxable property finally adopted by the convention, and cited in part above, followed somewhat closely the wording of the resolution first introduced. Yet that language disappeared in the report of the committee on revenue and taxation, and did not reappear until close upon the final revision. But the word franchise was in every one of the resolutions considered by the convention and in every one of the amendments offered thereto. This unanimity is very remarkable in view of the wide differences of opinion that prevailed upon other points.

[6] For a full discussion of the origin and history of the taxation of mortgages, see an Article in the *Yale Review* for May, 1899, by the writer of this paper.

[7] *People vs. Hibernia Bank*, 51 Cal., 243.

When the article on revenue and taxation came back from the convention's committee on revenue and taxation, it contained the following direct reference to the taxation of franchises. "Sec. 2. All property, including franchises, capital stock of corporations or joint stock associations, and solvent debts, deducting therefrom debts due *bona fide* residents of this state, ... shall be taxed in proportion to its value, to be ascertained as directed by law."[9] The sixteen days' debate on this article had barely begun before it was clear that this section had to be read in connection with: "Sec. 17. The value of the capital stock of a corporation shall be assessed in the county in which the principal place of business is located, and separately from all other property belonging thereto; and such stock shall be assessed at its market value when the assessment is made. The real and other personal property of such corporation shall be assessed in the several counties respectively in which the same is situate. *The value of such stock, over and above the aggregate value of such real and other personal property*, according to such assessment, shall be taxed in the county in which the principal place of business of such corporation is located; and the value of such real and other personal property shall be taxed in the several counties respectively in which the same is situate. The shares of stock belonging to the stockholders in such corporations shall be exempt from taxation; *provided*, that the provisions of this section shall not apply to railroad corporations."[10] Here we have a clear and distinct provision for the taxation of the corporate excess. It soon became clear that the committee had adopted one of the two conflicting plans of different groups of delegates. One was to tax the stock of corporations as well as the property, much as these same delegates wished to tax the mortgages and the property by which the mortgages were secured; the other was, as proposed by the committee, to tax all the property, including everything that gave value to the stock, but not to tax the stock in addition thereto. Section seventeen seems to have been the committee's interpretation, for administrative purposes, of the term franchises.

As the discussion proceeded those members of the convention who had clear and pronounced views on taxation divided themselves into two camps. One contained those who regarded the property tax as a tax on property in the objective sense, that is, as a tax on things irrespective of the owners. These were opposed to the taxation of credits, mortgages, or other forms of intangible property that were representative of other property, such as, choses in action and the like, but they were not necessarily opposed to the taxation of intangible property when such property was not representative in character. Among the latter kinds of property would be, of course, franchises. The other camp contained those who regarded the property tax as a tax on persons in proportion to what they owned, that is, in proportion to their property. These, of course, wanted all credits and representative property taxed. Some of them would permit a man to deduct what he owed from what was owing to him, but many of them would not make even that concession. The clearer thinkers among the latter sub-group admitted that this would be double taxation, but advanced the claim that it would not matter as the doubling of the rolls would cut the tax rate in two. Inasmuch as franchises could reasonably be regarded as taxable property from both points of view the term fell, as it were, in neutral territory between the two camps and hence was regarded as belonging to both. That franchises should be taxed was, thus, tacitly admitted by both sides without a clear perception of the fact that they arrived at this conclusion by different lines of reasoning. This unanimity of opinion would have been fatal to our search for an expression of what the delegates meant by the term franchises, for it would have prevented its being discussed, had it not been for the fears and misgivings of the representatives of the mining districts. These representatives saw, or thought they saw, in the provisions for the taxation of franchises and especially in section seventeen, a danger to the mining corporations. There was a strong faction in the convention, composed of various elements, that was openly hostile to corporations and corporate power. The farmers were especially anxious to curb the railroads, while the workingmen's party and other groups were more generally opposed to "the money power."[11] As it was clearly impossible to impose restrictions on corporations, without affecting those engaged in mining, the representatives of the mining districts were continually put upon the defensive, and in no case more so than in the face of the proposal to tax the stock and the property of the corporations. They saw, even in the committee's proposal to tax the tangible property in the mining counties and the franchise, or the corporate excess, in the cities, where the offices of the companies usually were located, a grave danger. That was that the companies might fare badly between the two assessors. Joined with this was the very natural desire of the mountain counties where the mines were located to retain the entire taxes upon the mines.

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[8] Davis, W. J., *History of Political Conventions in California, 1849–1892*. Sacramento, State Library, 1893.

[9] Debates and Proceedings, p. 831.

[10] Debates and Proceedings, p. 831. The italics are mine.

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[11] The following are some of the most extreme expressions of a feeling that seems to have been prevalent: On October 5, 1877, the so-called "Kearney Party" adopted the following resolution:

"We propose to destroy the great money power of the rich by a system of taxation that will make great wealth impossible in the future." Davis, *Political Conventions*, p. 366.

On January 24, 1878, the Workingmen's party adopted a platform, and among the resolutions proposed for this, but not adopted, was the following: "Sec. 11. Millionaires and money monopolists are destructive to the happiness and dangerous to the liberty of the people, and we demand that they be made impossible by a proper system of taxation." *Ibid.*, p. 380.

The attack of the mining delegates brought out the meaning of the term franchise. Among the delegates who frequently and emphatically voiced the alarm of the mining delegates was Mr. Gregg, who on one occasion said: "Now the capital stock of corporations in some form, certainly, should be taxed, *or* the franchises should be taxed. I am satisfied that corporations owning franchises of great value should be taxed. The Spring Valley[12] franchise should be taxed. But when you tax the capital stock of corporations you turn the greater portion of the tax into the treasury of the city and county of San Francisco, because nearly all the stock is owned there. Franchises include the capital stock[13] and if you tax the one you should not tax the other. Then, again, when you tax the franchise and capital stock of corporations you are endangering the mining interests of the state."[14] Very early in the debates it became apparent, as indeed is shown in this citation and in the replies thereto, that the delegates understood the term franchises to apply to all classes of corporations whether they had special privileges or not. No other interpretation of the two sections proposed by the committee is possible. Mr. Shafter said: "It is quite correct to tax franchises, *the right to do business*, and the visible property only" (i. e., "only" in the sense of excluding the stock) "as these constitute all there is of value belonging to corporations."[15]

It was Mr. Howard, who first threw light on the meaning of the term by drawing upon the decisions of the courts. He quoted from the decision of the Supreme Court of the United States in the case of the Delaware Railroad Tax, 18 Wall., 231, as follows:

"The state may impose taxes upon the corporation as an entity existing under its laws, as well as upon the capital stock, or its separate corporate property. And the manner in which its value shall be assessed, and the rate of taxation, however arbitrary or capricious, are mere matters of legislative discretion."[16]

"A franchise, the Supreme Court says, 'Is the privilege or the right of association in a particular manner to accumulate property and to make money. *The grant of a corporate existence is the grant of special privileges to the corporators enabling them to accumulate property, free from individual liability.*'"[17]

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[12] The Spring Valley Water Company supplies the city of San Francisco with water.

[13] Apparently he meant to say that franchises are included in the value of the stock.

[14] Debates and Proceedings, p. 850.

[15] *Ibid.*, p. 854.

[16] *Ibid.*, p. 867.

Finally the convention agreed to strike out the provisions for the taxation of the capital stock, apparently on the ground that a majority of the members were convinced that to tax both the stock and the property, including the franchise, was double taxation. In this shape the article was reported out of the committee of the whole and although the convention did not hestitate to reopen the debate on many of the matters under controversy yet the decision of the committee of the whole on the taxation of franchises was not disturbed.

A side light on the meaning of the term franchise as it was understood by the convention is thrown by the use of the term in the sections relating to corporations, their formation and their powers. There it is used in such phrases as: "all existing charters, grants, franchises, special or exclusive privileges;" "any franchise or charter" and in other similar expressions which show that the convention understood that the mere right to be a corporation was a franchise.

Immediately after the adoption of the constitution by the people the political code was amended to carry the new provisions of the constitution into effect. The definition of taxable property was taken over bodily from the new constitution and, of course, carried with it the taxation of franchises. Then section 3640 was rewritten. That section had stood since 1872 in the following form: "The owner or holder of stock in any firm or corporation, the entire capital or property whereof is assessed, must not be assessed individually for his stock in such firm or corporation." There was nothing in this that was contrary to the decision of the convention to tax the property of corporation and not the stock as such. But the definition of taxable property, as quoted above, said, that the word "property" included "moneys, credits, bonds, *stocks*, dues, franchises," etc., and the legislature seems to have thought that it was left to it to provide for the taxation of stock. The section as revised read: "each person, firm, or corporation owning or having in his or its possession any of the shares of the capital stock of any corporation, association, or joint stock company, shall be assessed therefor.[18] If the corporation, association, or joint stock company has its principal place of business in this state, the assessable value of each share of its stock shall be ascertained by taking from the market value of its entire capital stock the value of all property assessed to it, and dividing the remainder by the entire number of shares into which its capital stock is divided. The owner or holder of capital stock in corporations, associations, and joint stock companies whose principal place of business is not within this state, must be individually assessed for such stock. Shareholders, in the statement required by section 3629 of this code, shall specify the number of shares of stock held by them, and the name of the corporation. The owner of shares of stock to be entitled to the deduction provided for in this section must produce to the assessor a certificate of the assessment of the property of the corporation, association, or joint stock company." This was in effect a legislative reënactment of the provision for the taxation of the corporate excess which had been rejected by the convention, with the difference that the excess was to be assessed to the stockholder and not to the corporation.

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[17] *Ibid.*, p. 890.

[18] It will be observed that this was a direct reversal of the old section.

The enactment of this section of the law opened up the question as to whether the constitution still required the taxation of the stock as well as of the property and the franchise of corporations. One of the assessors apparently decided for himself that the law as laid down in the section above quoted was unconstitutional and declined to assess shares of stock. A taxpayer, claiming that the omission of the stock of corporations from the tax rolls unduly increased his share of the taxes, went into court for an order directing the assessor to assess the shares of stock in corporations. This case is commonly known as *Burke vs. Badlam* (57 Cal. 599), and is important as being given at a time when the proceedings of the convention were still fresh in the minds of many, and were consequently easier of interpretation than they would have been later. The decision was that "to tax the property and franchise and also the stock is double taxation." This rendered the greater part of the revision of section 3640 of the political code invalid and it was apparently on that account that the whole of it was repealed, the next year. But meanwhile the provision of that section as to the valuation of the stock had been adopted by some of the assessors as the method for arriving at the value of the franchise. On the same day that the legislature repealed this section, and in the same bill, it enacted a new section of the code which still stands as section 3608 and which reads: "Shares of stock in corporations possess no intrinsic value over and above the actual value of the property of the corporations which they stand for and represent; and the assessment and taxation of such shares, and also all corporate property, would be double taxation." One of the code commissioners has since sneeringly referred to this as "a bit of subtle reasoning" but, although this may be true of it and although this provision may not be directive law, it is nevertheless a record of legislative conviction and a statement of principles that cleared the atmosphere at a very troubled time.

At the time that the decision in the case of *Burke vs. Badlam* was handed down, the court had before it another case, decided shortly afterward, involving the validity of the tax on franchises, that was the case of the *San José Gas Company vs. January* (57 Cal. 614). An assessor had valued the franchise of a gas company at $130,000 and the company resisted the payment of the tax. "In making the valuation," says the court, "he estimated the combined aggregate market value of the shares of the capital stock of the corporation, held and owned by the shareholders at $240,000 and from that aggregate deducted the combined aggregate value of all the taxable property of the corporation, including real estate and improvements thereon, personal property, money, and street mains, and found the result $130,000, and assessed the franchise at that sum." This assessment had been appealed to the county board of equalization, but had been sustained. In this particular case the franchise was one granted directly by the constitution of the state and might be enjoyed by anyone. As it did not represent a monopolizable right it might have been, possibly, regarded as different from a special and exclusive privilege. On this point the constitution as it then stood said:[19] "in any city where there are no public works owned and controlled by the municipality for supplying the same with water or artificial light, any individual, or company duly incorporated for such purpose under and by authority of the laws of this state, shall, under the direction of the superintendent of streets, or other officer in control thereof, and under such general regulations as the municipality may prescribe for damages and indemnity for damages, have the privilege of using the public streets and thoroughfares thereof, and of laying down pipes and conduits therein, and connections therewith, so far as may be necessary for introducing into and supplying such city and its inhabitants either with gaslight or other illuminating light, or with fresh water for domestic and all other purposes, upon the condition that the municipal government shall have the right to regulate the charges thereof."[20] The decision was that the franchise was taxable. As to the value fixed thereon the court held that that was a matter to be left to the discretion of the assessor and found no fault with the method used. It said further: "In a pecuniary sense, the value of franchises may be as various as the objects for which they exist, and the methods by which they are employed, and may change with every moment of time; but that franchises are property, and are to be taxed in some method in proportion to value, is a part of the paramount law of the state."

The whole matter was gone over again, shortly afterward, in the case of the *Spring Valley Water Works vs. Schottler* (62 Cal. 69), which is the forerunner of a long series of cases in which the same principles are reaffirmed and extended. The assessor had valued the franchise of this corporation at $5000, but the county board of equalization, reviewing his work, had raised the valuation to $5,000,000. This is the company which supplies the city of San Francisco with water. The attorney for the company claimed that "the difference between the value of the tangible property and the aggregate value of the stock of the corporation is composed of various elements, among which may be enumerated the skill, ability, and enterprise with which the business is conducted, the fortunate conditions and circumstances surrounding it, the custom which has been gained by the steady pursuit of the business for a number of years and by course of judicious and honorable dealing with the public."

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[19] This provision was amended in 1911.

[20] Article xi, Sec. 19, of the state constitution.

The court in its decision, first reviewed the mode of making the assessment, or valuation. It said: "It appears from the record in this case that the Board of Supervisors, in the exercise of its powers of equalization, assessed the franchise of the Water Works by taking the aggregate market value of the shares of stock in the company on the 7th day of March, 1881, and deducting therefrom the value of the real and personal property of the company, and held the difference to be the value of the franchise. The market value of the stock was shown to the board by testimony of witnesses. Such a mode of arriving at the value of the franchise appears to have been adopted by the assessor in the *San José Gas Company vs. January*, 57 Cal. 614, and this mode was held to be within the powers vested in the assessor. It was also impliedly approved as a correct method in *Burke vs. Badlam*, above cited." Nor was the court unmindful of the fact that the rule of assessment laid down in section 3640 of the political code had been repealed. But it drew the inference from the passage of section 3608, which declared that the property and not the shares of stock should be taxed; that the legislature intended that all property including the franchise should be taxed. In this connection it said: "no doubt it was their intention" (i.e., that of the legislators) "to tax everything in the shape of property owned by the corporation; that everything entering into and giving value to the shares should be taxed. It cannot be doubted that the legislature, in acting upon the subject of revenue and taxation in the session of 1881, did not intend to leave the system in relation to so important a matter in such shape, that so large an amount of property as indicated by the difference between the market value of the shares of corporations and the value of the tangible property of such corporations should escape taxation. To come to any other conclusion, would be to impute to that body a most culpable dereliction of duty."

In answer to the contention made by the attorney for the company, and cited above, the court said: "it is contended that good-will enters into and forms an element in the value of the shares of stock. *No case has been produced to us, nor have we been able to find any, holding or even intimating that this is so.* We find no such element of value in the least hinted at, by anyone who has written on the subject, nor has any such been called to our attention. *We cannot recognize any such element as giving value to the shares of a trading corporation. It would be strange to predicate good-will as pertaining* *to or extending to an abstraction, to an artificial being, invisible, intangible and existing only in contemplation of law.*"[21]

I have been unable to find any case since then in which the courts have attributed good-will to a corporation, except in one case in which the court upheld the notion that a corporation could purchase the name and good-will of a person whose business it bought up and took over. But in the dissenting opinion in the Bank of California case, which will be referred to below, two of the justices use language that implies the possibility that in their opinion some elements of good-will may enter into the corporate excess.

This decision, by approving the method of arriving at the value of the franchise, had the effect of giving life to a section of the code that had been repealed. Indeed the old section 3640 is much more alive today than some other section of the code that have not been repealed.

Another series of cases involving the assessment of franchises arose in connection with the assessment, by the state board of equalization, of the railroads, operating in more than one county. These need delay us but for a moment. The main question was not the taxability of the franchise nor the method of valuation, but whether a railroad that received its franchise or a franchise from the federal government enjoyed also another franchise from the state and if so whether it could be assessed and taxed by the state upon its franchise, state or federal. It was finally decided that the franchise exercised within the state was taxable by the state and that such taxation was not an attack upon the privileges granted by the federal government.[22]

The rules laid down in the cases so far cited have been confirmed over and over again. But all of the earlier cases dealt with the franchises of public service corporations, and mainly with the right to use the public streets, although all the other franchises possessed and enjoyed by such companies were, by the method of valuation, also included. The question whether the franchise of a corporation not possessing special privileges was taxable, and could be valued in the same manner, came up much later in a series of cases of which the *Bank of California vs. San Francisco* (142 Cal. 276) may be taken as the leading one. It is clear that a bank has no special or exclusive privileges and yet the franchise of that bank was assessed at $750,000 and the assessment was sustained. The amount of the assessed valuation of the franchise was arrived at by deducting from the aggregate value of the stock of the bank the sum of the exempt holdings plus the assessed value of the real estate, money, and other taxable property of the bank and taking a fraction of the remainder as the assessable value of the franchise. The reasons for taking only a part (about one-fourth) of the corporate excess seem to have been two: first, a concession to the general practice of under-assessment of all property, a practice that is entirely illegal, but prevalent; and second, a desire to omit from the assessment any element of good-will. The latter seems to have arisen from a fear that the courts might hold that good-will could not be taxed under the term franchise. But if that was the fear it was ill-founded, for on that point the court said that even if good-will had been included, the assessment would still have been valid, for "everything that gives value to the shares of a corporation shall be assessed as property of the corporation."

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[21] The italics are not in the original.

[22] *People vs. Central-Pacific Railroad Company*, 105 Cal. 576. Also *California vs. Pacific Railroad Cos.*, 127 U. S., 1.

As this decision has been followed in a number of other cases it may now be said that it is the settled law that every corporation has a taxable franchise and that its value is equal to the corporate excess or the difference between the market value of the stock and the value of the corporation's plant as assessed for purposes of taxation. In the language of the courts there are three kinds of such franchises that are taxable: (1) the franchise "to be" a corporation; (2) the franchise "to do" business as a corporation; and (3) the various special privileges specifically granted by the state or by some other branch of government.

Although this has been the law since 1879, its administration has been far from uniform or effective. All special franchises in the great cities as well as the franchises of the great railroads have been assessed and taxed, with varying severity from 1880 to the present time. These offered no difficulties, except the administrative ones, of ascertaining the market value of the stock. But the "common franchises" of corporations of miscellaneous classes were very irregularly assessed and taxed. In 1897 there were no franchises whatever assessed in thirty out of the then fifty-seven counties of the state and after years of discussion there were in 1910 only forty-three counties out of the then fifty-eight, in which these franchises appeared on the tax rolls. In the large cities the practice grew up of placing nominal valuations upon the franchises of mercantile, manufacturing, and mining companies, in short upon all companies other than public service companies and banks which could not, by changing their "principal place of business," move out of the assessor's district, while in the country and in the smaller cities the franchises were ignored. Gradually, the assessors in the large cities raised some of these assessments, notably, in the case of some of the large oil companies, but the only effect was to drive the companies to move away. It was to cure these evils, that, when the new system of state taxation was adopted, the entire taxation of franchises was transferred to the state.

The constitutional amendment adopted by the people, November 8, 1910, was drawn for the purpose of separating state from local taxation as to sources of revenue. It transferred to the state all the taxes upon public service corporations, except water companies, all taxes upon banks, except the taxes upon the real estate of the banks. The classes of companies included are enumerated as: "railroads, including street railways, whether operated in one or more counties, sleeping car, dining car, drawing-room car and palace car companies, refrigerator, oil, stock, fruit, and other car-loaning and other car companies operating upon railroads in this state; companies doing an express business on any railroad, steamboat or stage line in this state; telegraph companies; telephone companies; companies engaged in the transmission or sale of gas or electricity; insurance companies; banks, banking associations, savings and loan societies, and trust companies; and taxes upon all franchises of every kind and nature." It provided that the taxes upon the public service corporations should be computed upon the basis of the gross receipts, and that those on the banks should be in proportion to the book value of the capital stock; and all these taxes were expressly declared to cover the franchises of such companies. There remain, then, to be taxed as franchises, *eo nomine,* all other franchises, which in the language of the recent statute[23] are defined as follows: "These franchises shall include the actual exercise of the right to be a corporation and to do business as a corporation, under the laws of this state and the actual exercise of the right to do business as a corporation in this state when such right is exercised by a corporation incorporated under the laws of any other state or country, also, the right, authority, privilege, or permission to maintain wharves, ferries, toll roads, and toll bridges, and to construct, maintain or operate, in, under, above, upon, through, or along any streets, highways, public places, or waters, any mains, pipes, canals, ditches, tanks, conduits, or other means for conducting water, oil, or other substances."

The gain made by transferring the taxation of these franchises to the state was at once apparent. The taxes could not be dodged by the mere transfer of the "principal place of business" to another place. Such a transfer is very easily effected, all that it requires is notice to the Secretary of State, and the opening of an office, however small. Even if the company transferred its office to some other state, it would, if it still continued to do business within the state, be taxable for a franchise. So too are foreign corporations coming into the state. In 1910, as nearly as can be ascertained, the total assessed value of the franchises, other than those of the railroads operating in more than one county, in the forty-three counties in which alone they were assessed, was a little over $29,000,000. In 1911 the state assessed the common franchises and the others that are taxable *eo nomine* at over $160,000,000. In other words over $130,000,000 of heretofore untaxed, but always taxable, property was found and was taxed.

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[23] Chapter 335, Statutes of California, 1911.

Some of the common franchises were found to be very large in value. Thus in the case of one group of affiliated companies the aggregate franchises were assessed at over $12,000,000; in another similar group at $8,000,000; and in another single company at $3,500,000.

The constitution as now amended provides that franchises shall be assessed "at their actual cash value, in the manner to be provided by law." But the legislature made no further provision than to place the duty of assessing the franchises upon the state board of equalization, which board has been vested with the entire administration of the state revenue system. Since the legislature did not venture to provide a new rule for the valuation of the franchises the board followed the time honored methods, approved by the courts and which we have just reviewed. As any other method would probably imply a different definition or meaning for the term franchise from that in which it has been understood to have been used in the constitution it would be of doubtful constitutionality. But the legislature did add one restriction, not in the constitution, and contrary to the accepted meaning of the term franchise, and that was, that, in making the assessment due allowance must be made for good-will. This would seem to exempt from taxation a certain class of property heretofore taxable and to do so without constitutional grant. It is, therefore, difficult to determine the effect of this statutory provision until it has been passed upon by the courts. So far the courts have not distinctly recognized the possession of good-will by a corporation, except in the one case where a corporation had bought out and taken over the name and the good-will of an individual, whose business the corporation had absorbed. All of the elements of value that it has been sought to bar out by the use of the term "good-will" have been repeatedly held to be part of the corporate franchise, or the corporate excess.

Nor does the law in any way inhibit the taxation of good-will, other than in this anomalous provision. But the assessors have never made a practice of assessing good-will, although it might be urged that it is their duty so to do.

Thus far in this paper I have referred solely to the use of the stock as the basis for determining the aggregate value of the corporation's plant and franchises. For a long time, however, the practice has prevailed of including the market value of the bonds, of other mortgage interests, and of other securities which, in the language of section 3608 of the political code, also, "stand for and represent the property" of the corporation. This practice is so obviously a proper one that it has never been questioned in the California courts and they have never been called upon to pass upon it directly. The question was not likely to arise by reason of certain provisions of the constitution. Thus, so far as the railroads and other public service corporations were concerned, the constitution, until 1910, expressly provided that the corporations should pay all the taxes upon their property and the bondholders, as such, should be exempt. In interpreting this the court has said that a tax upon the bonds of railroad companies of this state secured by a mortgage upon the value of their property, *which is required to be assessed at its full value to such companies*, is double taxation forbidden by the constitution.[24] This is a clear recognition of the representative character of the bonds. Furthermore it was ruled, even under the constitution as it stood prior to 1910, that "the bonds of private domestic corporations secured by mortgage or deed of trust can only be taxed by assessing the value of the security as an interest in the property encumbered for their payment. They cannot be assessed as mere personal debts or credits, and such assessment is void."[25] That extends the same principle to other than public service corporations, and is tantamount to saying that such bonds were never assessable *if all the property of the corporation is taxed,* because the bonds, like the shares of stock, stand for and represent the property.

The repeal of the mortgage tax provisions of the constitution in 1910 and the accompanying provisions to the effect that "a mortgage, deed of trust, contract, or other obligation, by which a debt is secured, when land is pledged as security for the payment thereof, together with the money represented by such debts, shall not be considered property subject to taxation" extended the same principle heretofore laid down for public service corporations to all classes of corporations and even to private individuals. The federal courts have distinctly ruled that it is proper to include bonds in determining the value of the corporation's property. That was in the case of the *Atcheson, Topeka and Sania Fé Railway Company vs. Sullivan,* 173 Federal Reporter, 456.

There are many corporations whose stocks and bonds are not dealt in on the stock exchange and whose shares and other securities are not often bought and sold in a way to determine a market value. In these cases the value of the stocks and bonds has to be determined by an appraisal, made, as nearly as may be, in the same manner as the market value would be determined if the stocks and bonds were bought and sold in the market. That is to say, there should be considered the amount of the property held and its character, the earnings available for distribution, either in the form of dividends to the stockholders, or of interest to the bondholders, or carried to surplus, or reinvested in betterments, the value that arises from the fact that it is a "going concern" and the future prospects as to continued, increasing or decreasing earnings. Of these, the earnings are the most important and if no other method is available they may be capitalized at rates approximately equal to the rates shown by the market value of similar classes of securities.

[24] *Estate of James G. Fair,* 128 Cal., 607, and subsequent cases affirming.

[25] *Ibid.*

It is almost needless to say that the more rigid enforcement of a tax, which had been so largely evaded for over thirty years, has given rise to some opposition and more discussion. The opponents of the taxation of franchises do not deny that the franchises are taxable property and have been so under the constitution and the laws of the state for over thirty years. The criticism is directed mainly against the propriety of the tax from the point of view of public policy. The critics fall into two groups: (1) there are those who argue that the franchise "to be" and "to do" has no value above the legal expenses and fees which it costs to obtain a charter and that all the rest of the corporate excess is due to good-will or to the ability and energy of the men at the head of the company and that the latter elements should not be taxed; (2) there are those who argue that corporations should not be taxed on their franchises, because they often compete with firms and partnerships, which pay no tax of a similar character.

Back of the whole criticism is the feeling that corporations are being regulated, taxed, and otherwise "interfered with" more than is good for "business." It must be admitted that there is a multitude of taxes falling upon corporations, although the total burden may not be large. First, there is the federal tax on the net earnings in excess of $5000, then the city and county tax on real estate and tangible personal property, then the state license tax, based upon the authorized capital stock, then the state franchise tax. While the last two can and probably should be combined, and made payable in one lump sum, yet they should be so combined that the identity of each may be preserved.

The argument that a franchise is worth only what it costs to reproduce it is catchy and specious in the extreme. It rests upon a misunderstanding of the meaning of the term. That meaning was fully set forth in the case of the *Spring Valley Waterworks vs. Schottler*, above cited. If instead of using the term "franchise," which is, perhaps, capable of misinterpretation, the constitution had said "corporate excess." or had laid down the rule that corporations should be taxed upon the property they held of every class including the value of the intangible property over and above the items of tangible property that could be found, no one would have thought of this particular ground for criticism. That that is precisely what is meant by the term as used in the constitution and the statutes of California has been abundantly demonstrated. Of the 18,000 corporations assessed for a "franchise" last year there were none which did not show a corporate excess far larger than the mere cost of obtaining a charter. Nor is this excess value due solely to the business ability of the men in charge. Men may come and men may go but the corporation and its corporate excess go on for ever. It was said when the tax was first assessed that it would drive many corporations to disincorporate and to turn themselves into partnerships. If such had been the case it would have been partial evidence that the franchise or the right to be a corporation was of little value to the incorporators. But the number of disincorporations has not proven to be any larger than has been the case in past years, when this tax was not so fully enforced. Those companies which have disincorporated have done so, in most instances, because their business had been completed or had proven a failure. The privilege of being a corporation is a valuable privilege conferred by the state and as the state does not force this privilege upon anyone it certainly has the right to hedge it about with such restrictions, and to impose upon it any burdens, as it deems wise.

The second of the two arguments of the critics is not an argument against the taxation of franchises, but, in so far as it has any significance, is an argument in favor of the taxation of individuals and partnerships upon their good-will and the "value of a going concern," either by the way of license taxes or by other appropriate means. If there be any inequality in the present system it should be corrected by taxing those who now escape their fair share of the public burdens, not by releasing those who have now for the first time been effectively reached.

GERMAN MUNICIPAL SOCIALISM AS ILLUSTRATED BY ULM

BY KARL FREDERICK GEISER[1]

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THE recent German election which returned one hundred and ten Social Democrats to the imperial parliament suggests a continued tendency away from the *laissez faire* principle and a deepening of the national social instinct. The growth of national socialism in Germany has not, however, tended to minimize the local activities of the city. In other words, the extension of the central authority over local matters, which in the last decade has been very marked in the German empire, as also in the German states, has not resulted as might have been expected, in the curtailment of municipal powers. While local affairs have, in the best sense, become national affairs, they have become so because of the fact that Germany recognizes the importance of the local problem in its relation to citizenship. She has not merely allowed, but compelled the city to manage its own affairs and solve its own problems.

In America, too, there has recently been a marked tendency toward national socialism, and with it a curtailment by the national government of the powers of the states. The states in turn, recognizing that the loss of power to the national government has been due to the inefficiency of their own legislatures to meet the problems within their borders, have awakened to self-consciousness, turned their attention to local affairs, and, among other things, reorganized their city governments. This municipal reorganization has compelled the people to face many new problems. Cities being corporations of delegated powers, the question of home rule and municipal socialism will have to be met in this new readjustment. With a strong public sentiment favoring home rule the city now has the opportunity to demonstrate its fitness for self-government. But what particular activities shall the municipalities take upon themselves?—that is the question.

If the study of municipal history shows any one thing more clearly than another, it is this: that unless the cities do purge themselves of their oligarchy, the state will again, as it has in the past, be compelled to draw the lines of interference more closely and assume control of local matters. It is therefore instructive to turn to the German cities which can furnish many valuable lessons and ask, "What do ye more than others?" With a view to suggesting, therefore, what municipal activities a city may safely take upon itself without destroying that individual initiative which we

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Americans still regard as of the essence of democracy, I shall briefly outline the municipal activities of a single south German city whose population comes within the range of those American cities in which the commission form of government has proved successful, that is, cities not exceeding a population of one hundred thousand.

The city of Ulm is generally regarded as being one of the best governed cities in Germany. It has without doubt made the greatest progress in social reforms and has perhaps extended its authority over a wider field of activities than any other city of the middle class. Moreover, it would be difficult to find a city anywhere whose consciousness of self-mastery over its own fortunes is more pronounced. Beautifully situated upon the confluence of the Danube and the Blau, with a history reaching back into the Middle Ages, with its far-famed cathedral, rivalled in Germany only by that at Cologne on the Rhine, with its varied industries, with its just pride in its city hall and its architectural beauty, with its many poor, with all the problems of growth and expansion—this city of fifty-six thousand souls is worthy of study.

Not only in Ulm but in all German cities the great social problem is the housing problem. The political economists and political leaders, of whatever school or party, have come to recognize that the social unrest which is sending annually thousands of discontented voters into the ranks of the Social Democratic party and threatening the stability of the empire itself, must, as everything else under the sun, have a cause. The cause has been determined and by unanimous consent of the leaders it has been agreed that the strength of the nation lies in the contentment and happiness resulting from the ownership of a home. *Mein Heim, meine Welt,* is an old adage that finds a quick response in every German heart. Given the opportunity to acquire ownership of a home, you have created an honest enthusiasm for the "God of things as they are" and quenched the springs of discontent. So reason the German leaders, and the mayors of the German cities, being among these leaders, have applied the new remedy against social unrest by inaugurating a program of municipal socialism which to the average American seems appalling, yet which upon close examination, at least in Ulm, has already accomplished significant results and seems to have placed within the city's grasp the control of her natural resources and the mastery of her own destiny.

Of all German cities Ulm is generally recognized as the leader in the land and housing-reform movement. It has more completely perhaps than any other city solved the problems of the poor. It has decided, for itself at least, the question whether the large tenement, or the single-family dwelling, shall be the dominant type in housing its poorer population. There is something to be said in favor of both systems. The large tenement house is cheaper and where land is valuable, it may be necessary to insure a proper return for capital. But the financial consideration is not as important as health and happiness, and every effort should be directed to secure the latter. Private enterprise must of course be guided first of all by the financial returns and the history of the housing question in Ulm, as in most German cities, has demonstrated the futility of depending upon private enterprise to solve the problem. The city felt compelled to take a hand in the matter since the ultimate responsibility, both by imperial and state legislation, for social betterment must be met by the municipality.

It must not be assumed that Ulm rushed thoughtlessly into a program of municipal socialism. She had long encouraged private builders and private capital to furnish houses for her working classes, and when the old unsanitary districts in the *Alstadt* were first torn down and new quarters erected, private enterprise took part, but the houses erected by private capitalists were too high priced for those with small means and small incomes. The city therefore undertook, at first on a small scale, municipal housing. From a hospital fund established in 1888 a large tenement was erected for hospital and city employees. It consisted of a three-story building enclosing twenty-one dwellings, nine of which contained three living rooms, and twelve, two living rooms to a dwelling. Besides the living rooms, each dwelling contains a kitchen, lavatory, alcove, cellar, fuel-room and wash-room These dwellings bore a rental ranging from $38 to $58 year, according to size and location. This was the first experiment, and though the rents were much lower than the average rental of similar houses in the city, the experiment was not a decided success. Families living under a common roof, using a common stairway and a common courtyard, found these conditions very unsatisfactory. The renters sought more private quarters and the city soon found itself with empty houses on its hands. Other means had to be devised to meet the situation. At the suggestion of the mayor and council the Building Society of Ulm was established. It was organized as a joint stock company and in 1891 it purchased of the city at the nominal price of $1.25 an acre per square metre a vacant tract and erected, subject to the plans of the city architect, a number of double houses, placed far enough apart to allow to each family sufficient room and light, with a rental ranging from $35 to $70 a year. This project which provided homes for 480 persons, was met with some opposition by the property owners of the city, though the number of houses thus erected did not materially affect the rents, neither did it provide homes for the lower classes, nor stimulate an interest in individual ownership in general. Naturally these new houses were rented to those whose income was such as to insure prompt payment of dues and a sure return to capital.

This second experiment convinced the city authorities that the problem of homes for the poor would not be solved by private enterprise nor by societies assisted financially by the state or municipality. It became evident that unless the poorest laborers were furnished homes many would become entirely dependent upon the city; that their small incomes would be entirely used to pay a profitable rent to private builders. Moreover, if the city depended upon private capital to house its indigent population, land would fall into the hands of speculators who would build the crowded tenement for large profits and all hope of individual ownership among the poor would vanish. Here was a new problem the city had to face. But the authorities met it in a scientific spirit. With the terms of the problem clearly before them, a far reaching and comprehensive policy on a socialistic basis was outlined. Direct financial aid would obviously be unwise as it would merely give temporary relief and emphasize the element of dependence. Forces must be set in motion and motives stimulated which would automatically operate among the poor in a way to encourage industry and frugality, to inspire hope and discourage discontent and the feeling of dependence; could this be accomplished, the question would be half solved.

Clearly a policy resting upon the basis of love of home and family, of frugality—in a word, a policy quickening those noble sentiments which are rooted in the ownership of home—would strike at the root of discontent. Accordingly in 1893 the authorities began a new building project to meet the needs of the poorest classes. The city itself was to furnish the ground and build the houses, complete in every detail, and sell them to the tenants on easy terms. These houses were built with due regard to the interests and wishes of those for whom they were intended. A tract of land owned by the city was set apart for this purpose and of the total area 63 per cent was devoted to gardens and courts, 20 per cent to buildings, and 17 per cent to streets, thus providing an abundance of air and sunlight, courts for children and sufficient garden space for each family.

In the first three series of houses erected the two-family house was the type adopted, and in the allotment to tenants large families were given choice of location. The capital required for the prosecution of this project which amounted to nearly $500,000 came from three sources. The purchasers of the homes furnished a little over one-fourth of the entire amount, but the greater part was supplied in the form of loans from the Württemberg Insurance Company, and the Savings Bank of Ulm. That this experiment was successful is evident from the fact that many of these homes are already clear of debt. In view of the fact that nearly all of these houses are occupied by large families with exceedingly small incomes, this showing is nothing short of remarkable. The houses are sold by the city with the privilege of repurchase at any time within one hundred years, and while the total cost of each dwelling ranges from $1500 to $1800, the annual payments do not exceed $65 to $95, including interest on investment at 3 per cent plus 2½ per cent amortization. If no misfortune prevents meeting the payments annually, the entire indebtedness becomes liquidated at the end of twenty-three years.

Should a purchaser in the meantime leave the city, the house is taken back by the city without loss to the owner. In case of death of the head of the family, or of sickness, or other misfortune which curtails the income, the city extends credit or defers the obligation according to the needs of the owner and in various ways carries the delinquent family over the period of misfortune. After continuing the policy of erecting the two-family dwelling house, the city in 1903 erected 107 single-family houses at a cost of $1750 each, including a fair-sized lot. The plan of purchase was essentially the same as in the case of those mentioned above and this type of dwelling of course made family life and living conditions in general still more favorable.

Ulm is unique in the housing question in this, that it is the only city in Germany that undertakes actually to build and equip a complete home to sell outright to purchasers, but she also, like many other German cities, aids indirectly in the housing problem by granting long leases, at nominal rates, of city land, to various building societies and factories for housing purposes. These leases are granted, however, on condition that the societies build within a definite period, and of course all buildings erected are subject to strict building ordinances framed with a view to securing the most hygienic homes possible; and at the expiration of these leases the property reverts to the city. To encourage these societies in carrying on the housing project, the city extends them loans on easy terms to the extent of 90 per cent of the value of the property. In thus placing municipal land at the disposal of building societies, and in loaning money on credit, Ulm has directly and indirectly assisted materially not only in providing homes for the indigent poor, but also for the middle class. Nor have these activities merely resulted in securing homes to classes that would otherwise have become a burden upon the city. In the new quarters thus erected under the most sanitary conditions, the rate of mortality has been reduced to 8.5 per thousand, compared to an average of 16 per thousand in other parts of the city, and 30 per thousand in the suburb of Soeflingen.

Ulm has thus demonstrated the possibility of greatly reducing mortality by a wise building policy alone, a lesson American cities have yet to learn. Some of the English cities have achieved similar results. The labor villages of Bournville near Birmingham, and Port Sunlight near Liverpool, have, by similar housing methods reduced the mortality to less than 8 per thousand, compared to London's labor quarters of 30 to 40 per thousand. In these two English colonies the infant mortality is 92.5 per thousand, compared to England and Wales' general average of 134.7 per thousand. But to return to Ulm, the city has directly, or through assistance to societies and individuals, furnished 998 homes, representing a population of 5700 souls, in the last twenty years. In other words, the city has provided homes for one-tenth of its population; and these facts have greater significance than mere figures may indicate. Every new house erected in a new quarter releases a family from an old quarter and relieves the pressure of congestion. Every family assisted to the ownership of a home thereby gains a permanent interest in the city, pays taxes into the city treasury, and in a thousand ways contributes to the municipal welfare.

As already stated, these houses were built upon land already owned by the city. In fact the land question is the key to the housing question. It is impossible to have cheap homes where land is high priced, and if we remind ourselves of the fact that agricultural lands in Germany are often valued at $500 per acre, we can readily appreciate the difficulties of a poor man purchasing a home in a city where prices are proportionately high. This fact has induced the great majority of German cities to municipalize land. Frankfort owns, exclusive of streets, 59.5 per cent of the land within the corporate limits; Augsburg, 54.2 per cent; Strassburg, 40.5 per cent; Hanover, 43 per cent, and Ulm, 90 per cent. This ownership gives the city perfect control and direction of its expansion and growth. Through the far-sighted policy of its efficient Oberbürgermeister, Herr von Wagner, famed far and wide as one of Germany's most expert municipal administrators, Ulm early inaugurated a land policy which has resulted in making that city today a model in municipal housing.

"Go to Ulm if you wish to learn how these things should be" is what the student of municipal housing hears on every hand in Germany; and English cities frequently send a delegation there to study conditions. Space forbids details, but since 1891 Ulm has purchased in round numbers a total of 1500 acres at an expense of $2,650,000. Of this amount 500 acres have been disposed of at a price exceeding the total cost of all the land purchased, thus leaving 1000 acres free of debt which is now yielding an annual net revenue of $18,750 from this source alone. Instead therefore of this colossal undertaking being an expense or burden upon the city, it has been a chief source of revenue. Nor is it strange that this should be so. While American cities have frittered away possibilities of handsome incomes—sufficient to pay the running expenses of the city—from the streets, by long and gratuitous franchises to transportation and lighting companies; and through perverted notions of individualism and private enterprise have allowed real estate men and land speculators who toil not to enrich themselves at the expense of the homebuilder, Ulm has kept these fundamental resources to herself—or better, has acquired them by applying business principles to municipal politics. This land policy is pursued by many German cities—in fact by all—to a large extent. Like the American farmer of the middle west, who is financially rated by the number of fertile acres to which he holds a deed, so the fortune of a German city is measured in terms expressed by the ratio of real estate ownership to the total corporate area.

In spite of the large number of social activities, of extensive public works, of increase in salaries to officials, Ulm has the lowest tax rate of any of the larger German cities, and its financial condition is such that a future competence is insured. Sites for schools, hospitals, lighting plants, water works and other municipal activities necessary to a growing city, may be located upon city land long after the city has grown far beyond its present limits. Meantime, the property thus owned, instead of being a burden is turned to good account. Over one hundred acres are devoted to so-called "Leaf Gardens" to the number of three hundred, which are rented to different families as private grounds and from which the city derives no inconsiderable revenue.

The municipal activities are not, however, limited to an efficient financial administration, important as this may be. The philanthropic and humane spirit is no less manifest in institutions which have recently been established and in the care of the poor and unfortunate. Since 1902 the school system has been equipped to meet the needs of feeble-minded children; in the lower and middle grades special courses for pupils who stammer, of which for some reason there are many, have been added. A school physician was appointed in 1906 to supervise the health, and he was also clothed with authority to send children suffering from infirmities to health resorts, the expenses in such cases being borne in part, however, by the society for infirm children. A year later a dental clinic was added to the public school system. Thirty per cent of all school children have free tuition and free books, while free car fare is furnished when necessary, to those living at a remote distance from the school. Since 1905 the city has undertaken to furnish pure milk for infants and weaklings at 3 cents per liter, with a view to reducing infant mortality. In addition to this, the city gives annually $800 to the Society for the Protection of Infants. The coöperation of the city with these charitable societies in behalf of infants has resulted in reducing the infant mortality in Ulm from 208 in 1905 to 122 in 1910.[2] In 1908 an institution under the direction of the city physician, assisted by a matron, was established to care for and give instruction in incipient cases of tuberculosis. It provides hospital accommodations, isolation, outdoor work, and furnishes, when necessary, proper food. In 1911 the city furnished this institution, free of charge, with 45,000 liters of pure milk. In all these provisions the city has taken the position that the humblest citizen is entitled to the best possible means of securing and maintaining health; and in line with this policy the municipality purchased, in 1905, a picturesque wooded tract, beautifully situated in the valley of the Blau, about four miles from the city, to be used as an outdoor health and pleasure resort, free to all citizens.

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[2] This applies to deaths within a year after birth.

But perhaps the most unique and unusual municipal activity is that of a pension to the veterans who fought against Austria in 1866 and also to those engaged in the Franco-Prussian war. This of course is a pure gratuity on the part of the city, as the granting of pensions is a function of the state; but it illustrates the wide range of activities of the German city. It is granted as a modest honorarium in recognition of the poorly paid services to the state in time of need. Veterans with an income of less than $225 a year, receive $25, while those with an income from $225 to $300, receive annually $12.50, in all cases a residence of ten years being required; but those who have been convicted of crime or have been inmates of almshouses, are excluded. The total amount thus granted by the city was, in 1911, $2000. In 1898 an information bureau was established to give legal advice free of charge to the poor; and if necessary, to defend or prosecute suits in their behalf. The unemployed also have the benefit of a municipal labor bureau, and of loans from the city to tide them over a period of unemployment.

Municipal undertakings are always prosecuted with a view to furnishing, so far as possible, continuous employment and with a view to dividing the labor equitably among the unemployed. Difficult as this may seem, the city has, nevertheless, for the last ten years, so distributed the public work as to furnish to each unemployed laborer employment connected with some department of the city to the value of $45 during the winter season. In fact, the general policy of the city in regard to the care of the poor has been to reduce, on the one hand, almsgiving to a minimum by furnishing so far as possible employment, and on the other hand, to reduce the cost of living by controlling in various ways the price of the necessities of life. Thus in the fall of 1911 over 2000 bushels of potatoes were sold to the poor at cost. The exorbitant price of meats induced the city to establish a fish market, and recently the council entered into a five-year contract with an agricultural society to deliver one-sixth of the city's pork supply at a constant, fixed and reasonable price; and similar arrangements are to be made in regard to beef. City interference has likewise kept the price of milk within reasonable limits. From 1899 to 1908 the city created a fund to assist financially, widows, children and the unemployed, and a special labor ordinance provides compensation for certain wage earners for the loss of earnings incurred by sickness, "fest days," and military service.

In spite of the numerous social activities here mentioned, it should not be assumed that Ulm has rushed headlong into municipal socialism or that the city has by its socialistic policy stifled individual initiative. Ulm has simply socialized those resources, of which land is the most conspicuous example, which in America are used by the few—or may be used by the few—to exploit the many. She has interfered in behalf of the poor, to prevent this class from becoming entirely dependent, as a matter of self-protection. Moreover, she has preferred always to aid the cause of the lower classes indirectly by assisting numerous voluntary charitable institutions and enlisting the interest and sympathy of a majority of the well-to-do citizens. Such an extensive municipal policy obviously can only be carried to a successful issue by an efficient mayor and a wise council and a staff of administrative experts in the various departments. All this Ulm has. The present mayor, Herr von Wagner, has occupied his present position for a quarter of a century and is universally loved and respected. The land policy through which Ulm now controls her destiny was deliberately inaugurated by him at the beginning of his first term of office, when other cities of Germany looked upon the municipalization of land as of doubtful wisdom. But time has justified the wisdom of his course. The council has proved its competence to meet the present social needs and, at the same time, to place the city upon a sound financial basis. It has cost many a struggle and much anxiety on the part of the authorities, but because of this very fact the results have been all the more appreciated. Both the authorities and the citizens generally now entertain the confident hope that the municipal activities now under way will in the words of their famed Bürgermeister, "bridge the chasm of discontent and bring men of all parties and beliefs to a more perfect social consciousness, and, with the help of God, unite all in the high purpose of an effective social service in the body politic."

EFFICIENCY STANDARDS IN MUNICIPAL MANAGEMENT

BY JESSE D. BURKS, PH.D.[1]
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STANDARDIZATION is today regarded by many enthusiasts as a sort of Aladdin's lamp, possessing the potency and magic of that famous talisman for accomplishing the purposes of man. Ardent devotees look forward to the time when every form of human activity will yield to its magic, and most of the abstacles to human efficiency will in this way be surmounted. Whatever be one's conception of the part which standardization is ultimately to play in the industrial and social program, the standardization process is certain for many years to be a dominant factor in the development of higher efficiency in most fields of enterprise. Already in the field of industrial and commercial organization, salesmanship and advertising, medical and educational practice, religious and philanthropic activity, and of a hundred other types of enterprise, systematic efforts are being made to discover and establish standards of organization, equipment, procedure, method, output, results, and cost.

Many of the consequences of such efforts are in fact already so familiar as to be commonplace. Standard guage railway tracks, car couplers, air brakes, and operating agreements make possible unbroken transcontinental train service. Standard telegraph equipment, codes, and news service, lie back of the daily newspaper. Standard typewriter keyboards facilitate the distribution of machines and the availability of operators. Waterpipe manufactured at a hundred different factories may be joined in the same water supply system by standard threaded joints. The doors of a score of colleges are opened to a candidate for admission by the passing of a set of standard entrance examinations. Standards established by the Carnegie foundation are beginning to make possible a distinction between real and pseudo medical colleges; between "universities" that confer degrees for educational attainment and those that confer degrees for revenue only. Dr. Wiley's consistent program for standardizing food and drug labels is making it more and more possible for a consumer to buy what he pays for. The effective standardizing of official control over weights and measures in several states is beginning to insure to the purchaser the full quantity of goods for which he pays.

There is a somewhat general misconception of the meaning of standardization which should at once be corrected. A "standard" is often thought of as implying an arbitrary, fixed or invariable basis of action, involving possibly the idea of perfection. As used in modern industrial and municipal research, however, the term has none of this suggestion of final and unchangable authority. It implies rather a working basis which, after careful consideration of available facts, is accepted for the time as the best that can be devised. There is no assumption that a standard is not subject to amendment at any time; provided only the proposed modifications be subject to tests as rigorous as those applied in the formulation of the original standard. Standardization thus defines a method rather than a fixed result—a method of scientific research and of continuous and progressive revision based upon fact-tests as distinguished from opinion-tests.

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[1] Director, Bureau of Municipal Research of Philadelphia.

It is a matter of common observation that very few standards, in the sense here defined, have received general recognition in city management. It is practically true that no specific problem of administration has been solved by two municipalities in the same way. Even among the departments of a given city, it is common to find wide variation in such matters as the classification of receipts and expenditures; method of handling requisitions, orders, bills, and stores of supplies and materials; preparation of financial estimates; handling and filing of correspondence and current records; supervision of janitorial and messenger service; formulation and publication of reports; and scores of other functions that might readily be subjected to scientific tests and standardization.

Substantial beginnings, however, have been made during the past few years in the standardization of municipal organization and operation. Standard charter provisions, ballot laws, and financial statements for many years have been subjects of discussion at the annual conferences of the National Municipal League. The remarkable growth in popular favor of the short ballot and commission government indicates that interest in standardization of this nature, affecting the distribution of functions and the general form of municipal government, has increased rather than declined during recent years. There is today a strong disposition, however, to place the emphasis upon the details of administrative method and departmental organization, rather than upon the general problems of political control or upon the organic form of government. There is a growing realization that standards of work done, results accomplished, and cost incurred applicable 365 days of each year *between* elections and intelligible to citizens, taxpayers and officials alike, constitute a factor more essential to municipal efficiency than a ballot of standard brevity or a commission of standard personnel.

It has taken a long time for the citizen-stockholders of American city-corporations to grasp the important fact that, without standards by which to measure concrete administrative results, all attempts to determine the efficiency of a clerk, a health officer, a mayor, a city council, an "administration," a policy, a method of management, a ballot law, or a charter must be uncertain or futile. We have not been quick to see that the primary purpose of a municipality is not to furnish occasional opportunities for casting ballots, revising charters, or recalling officials, but to promote and protect the health, education, safety, convenience, and happiness of its citizens; and that efficiency standards must therefore be stated in terms of community service rather than in terms of ballot laws or charter powers.

The present rapidly growing appreciation of the city's possibilities as an agency of community welfare accounts for the wide-spread effort to find units of measurement and standards of practice that shall make possible a definite appraisal of municipal efficiency in terms of community service rendered, community results obtained, community cost incurred. Standard specifications for supplies, equipment, and service; standard cost records; standard qualifications and salaries for officers and employees; standard classifications of revenues and expenses; standard forms for records and accounts; standard methods of inspection, audit, and financial control; are merely items in a program of social measurement and interpretation. The ultimate purpose of this program is to enable citizens and officials to apply specific efficiency tests to administrative methods, and results; to subject their judgment to the measure of fact; to give and to receive intelligent appreciation or discriminating criticism. Only on some such basis can a community secure for itself the invaluable results of informed and exacting citizenship, on the one hand; or of economical and efficiency public service on the other.

The advantage that invariably accrues to a community when standards are developed and put into force might be illustrated by numerous examples. A very few will serve the present purpose:

1. By standardizing its method of taking the school census, Philadelphia recently increased its portion of state school funds $75,000.

2. By standardizing its requirements as to the temperature and cleanliness of milk, its methods of milk inspection and its program for teaching mothers how to care for babies, Philadelphia saved the lives of more than a thousand babies in 1911.

3. By standardizing its medical inspection service, Philadelphia is now getting the physical defects of school children corrected, whereas formerly they were only reported and registered.

4. By standardizing the business methods of its bureau of water, New York increased its water revenues $2,000,000 a year.

5. As a result of fuel standardization, under which coal is purchased by heat capacity instead of by weight alone, the Board of Education of New York saved $900,000 in seven years.

6. Standardization of the quantity, quality, and form of official reports, books and of the *City Record*, has enabled New York to make an annual saving of $1,2000,000.

7. By standardizing specifications for milk, a large city hospital last year showed how $30,000 could be saved and applied to some of the urgent needs of its patients for which provision had not hitherto been made.

8. Among the many significant results of the studies made by the President's commission on economy and efficiency is the discovery that by standardizing envelopes used in the government service, an annual saving to the government of $250,000 or more could be secured.

Without multiplying illustrations, it may be said that wherever intelligent effort has been made to determine standards of organization, administrative methods, specifications, work done, needs to be met, and unit of cost, results similar to these have followed. Better service and lower cost mean not only saving in taxes but saving in health, education, convenience, and mortality. One hundred thousand dollars saved by applying heat-unit standards to the purchase of coal, without the least magic can be transmuted into clean streets, reduced infant mortality, better housing conditions, additional playgrounds, industrial education for children who are now driven from school, or into one of the hundreds of other forms of community welfare for which adequate support is now lacking.

With the money now being spent by American cities, officials now in office have adequate powers to insure enormously more efficient government even without further changes in charters or ballot laws, provided citizens and officials will look for results rather than resolutions and demand that haphazard methods in city management be replaced by clearly defined standards of procedure.

In view of the definition of standardization proposed above, it is obvious that many municipal standards must vary in detail with the physical and social conditions of the communities concerned. Standards of snow removal applicable in Boston will have very limited application to New Orleans. Standards of school house construction, street paving, fuel cost, sewage disposal, water supply, transit facilities, street lighting, and industrial education must vary with climate, natural resources, topography and economic pursuits. On the other hand, there are broad limits within which uniformity of practice may reasonably be expected. The following suggestions are offered as to standards that should find general application in the field of municipal management:

1. In the performance of a large proportion of its functions, a municipality must meet precisely the same technical problems that a private enterprise meets in the discharge of similar functions. Such are the functions involved in the constructions of bridges, sewers, reservoirs, streets, buildings, and other public works; the operation and maintenance of water systems, lighting plants, street railways, and other municipal service enterprises; the purchase of supplies, the disposal of ashes and sewage, the repairs of buildings and equipment; the collection and safe-keeping of moneys;

the maintenance of accounts, the audit of claims, the exercise of financial control, and the preparation of financial estimates and reports.

2. In the most highly developed private business it has proven advantageous to reduce to writing all standards of practice, so that responsibility for knowledge of the standards may be fixed and consistency of practice promoted. Besides being more easily understood and enforced, definitely formulated standards are more readily modified than indefinite, vague assumptions. Such formulation of standards is open to the charge of being useless "red tape" only when the standards are of the expression of arbitrary opinion; not when they are the result of scientific determination.

3. The functional type of management has proven its superiority in commercial and industrial enterprises. Briefly stated, this type of administration provides that each man in an organization perform those functions for which by training or native capacity, he is best qualified; that the final authority in each specific branch of an organization be placed in the hands of the one person best equipped to exercise such control; that no member of the organization be required to perform service that can be satisfactorily performed by another person whose service is less valuable; that no individual be expected or permitted to make decisions in matters for which he has not the requisite qualifications and the necessary information.

Some of the consequences of applying the methods of functional management in municipal administration will be these:

a. City councils and boards of aldermen will demand evidence as a basis for action; their functions will be limited to the consideration of general programs and the fixing of policies, instead of being extended to details of administrative practice which obstruct rather than aid executive officers.

b. Department heads will be selected on the basis of technical qualifications and administrative capacity; and these officers will give their attention to the study of community needs; to the collection, classification, and interpretation of facts; and to the utilization of such facts in the formulation of adequate standards and the development of an intelligent program of public service.

c. Bureau and division chiefs will be functional specialists, each in his own field; with definite responsibility and authority in all administrative matters requiring expert judgment.

d. Employees will be selected for the lower grades of service with a view to training them in the service for positions of higher grade.

e. Men will be retained in the service so long as they give evidence of appropriate efficiency; when they are no longer competent to render efficient service, as a measure of economy and justice, they will be either dismissed or pensioned. Adequate protection will be afforded every officer and employee by making provision for standardized service records, on the basis of which his efficiency may be accurately determined.

f. Salaries will be standardized according to grades of service rendered; the requirements of each position being determined by scientific inquiry rather than by unsupported opinion.

g. Provision will be made for distinct bureaus to perform, for the entire city government, special functions requiring expert service which the general departments are now commonly expected to carry on independently, each in its own way, to the financial and operative disadvantage of the city. The functions which can be thus segregated to advantage in a given community can be determined only by proper research. Among those which will probably be thus segregated, the following are suggested:

(1) Central purchasing agency and storehouse, which shall give the city the benefit of central buying; to departments the benefit of prompt action; and to dealers the benefit of prompt settlement and businesslike treatment.

(2) Interdepartmental janitorial service, which shall assume responsibility for the care of physical plants, including cleaning and minor repairs, which is often wastefully and unsatisfactorily placed upon the departments separately.

(3) Municipal messenger service, which shall provide for prompt and direct communication between offices; avoiding the delays incident to communication by mail and reducing the expense of separately maintained departmental messenger service.

(4) Emergency clerical force of the necessary number of employees trained in the methods of the city departments, from which occasional clerical service may be obtained on requisition by officers having seasonal or periodical requirements for such service. Such an emergency corps may not only facilitate the performance of municipal work at times of special need, but make possible reductions in the regular force of employees maintained by departments whose requirements fluctuate regularly.

(5) Printing and publication service, which shall standardize specifications for printed forms, records, reports, and advertising and handle the details of printing contracts and the publication and distribution of officials reports.

(6) Machine and repair shop, which shall make ordinary repairs of fire engines, automobiles, and other municipal equipment requiring machine work.

(7) General repair service, which shall make ordinary repairs and alterations in municipal buildings and structures.

(8) Municipal garage and transportation service, which shall maintain the city's automobiles and other vehicles for transportation of persons and things; providing service to departments on requisition, as needed, and accounting in detail for all service thus rendered.

(9) General inspection service, which shall scrutinize work done and goods furnished to the city, in order to determine the quantity and quality of service or goods; thus providing an effective check and verification by an independent agency. Most men cannot hold themselves to their highest standard of efficiency unless they are constantly stimulated by the prospect of a rigid and impartial appraisal of their work. No one factor of efficient control is more commonly neglected in municipal management.

(10) A general agency of standardization and research, which shall collect, classify, and interpret data regarding the administrative problems of each department of the city government; make such information available to officials and to citizens, in order that inefficient methods of management may be eliminated and efficient methods installed; and thus promote the development of a constructive municipal program based upon adequate knowledge and consideration of community needs.

4. A standardized system of accounts is a fourth essential to intelligent city management. Without means for determining currently, promptly, and accurately the main facts concerning a city's financial operations and results, officials will find it increasingly difficult to meet the growing demand for evidences of honesty, economy, and efficiency in the public service. Accounting methods are everywhere needed that will show clearly what the city owns and what it owes; what revenues have become available and what expenses have been incurred for specific periods; what appropriations have been made for specific purposes and in what amounts contracts have been entered into that will eventually become a charge upon such appropriations; what amounts have been paid under each contract and what liabilities remain to be discharged; what specific expense has been involved in each specific kind of activity included in the municipal program, and what results have been accomplished.

5. Most important of all the standards essential to efficient city administration is an informed, alert, and exacting citizenship. It is only recently that citizens have come to see that the management of a city means a good deal more than meeting a few so-called "issues" in spectacular fashion; that it means solving, day in and day out, innumerable definite problems calling for clear knowledge and effective action, as well as public spirit and honest intentions.

With the realization that public business, in large measure, is an administrative and non-political matter, is coming a new conception of the business of citizenship. Citizens are now seeking to inform themselves concerning the problems of management which public officials are called upon to solve; concerning the equipment provided for carrying on the city's business, the administrative methods employed, and the results accomplished in the various fields of municipal activity. It is becoming clear that the successful management of public business is just as exacting, calls for as close application and as high standards of methods and procedure as the successful management of private enterprises; and that it is unintelligent and ineffective for voters, taxpayers, newspaper writers, and legislators to express opinions, to reach conclusions, and to formulate these into law, without adequate and explicit knowledge of organization, methods, and results.

The definition and formulation of municipal standards have hitherto been concerned mainly with the technical and business aspects of city government. This is not because those who are interested in the promotion of government efficiency consider technical and business methods as anything more than a means toward the chief end. It is rather because definite business standards are seen to be the first essential in the accomplishment of the higher purposes of cities. The program of municipal efficiency is fundamentally a program of community welfare; the purpose being to equip city government not only to do most advantageously the work already committed to it, but to extend its responsibilities to public needs not yet met by public service.

FINANCIAL RESULTS UNDER THE COMMISSION FORM OF CITY GOVERNMENT

BY ERNEST S. BRADFORD, PH.D.[1]
Washington, D. C.

IN TWO fields of municipal administration, the financial and the engineering, have the results obtained in the cities operating under the commission form been so clearly marked as to command generally favorable opinion from students of this new type of city government. In the care of streets and paving, bridges, and lighting, and in general, the engineering activities of the city, and in municipal finance, there has been clearly evident an increase in efficiency. The raising and expenditure of funds is intimately connected with every other function of the city, and a study of financial results deals with a fundamental phase of municipal government.

Of the two hundred cities which have installed or have voted to install the commission form, more than sixty have had—or will have had by May, 1912—two years trial or more; nearly thirty have been operating for over three years. Galveston and Houston, Texas, the earliest commission centers, furnish naturally more extensive data on account of their large experience—Galveston since September, 1901, and Houston, since July, 1905. A group of Texas cities including Dallas, Fort Worth, Denison, Greenville, and El Paso, date from early in 1907, and Lewiston, Idaho, and Mandan, N. D., from later in the same year. Des Moines and Cedar Rapids, Ia., and Leavenworth, Kans., began in April, 1908; and Haverhill and Gloucester, Mass., High Point, N. C., Huntington and Bluefield, W. Va., Ardmore and Tulsa, Okla., Colorado Springs, Berkeley and San Diego, Calif., Wichita, Hutchinson, Independence, and two other Kansas cities, Bismarck and Minot, N. D., and Sioux Falls, S. D., in the early part or middle of 1909. These are the cities to which we look for the most helpful information upon the subject under consideration, and to others of at least two years' experience, where the data are definite.

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CLEARING UP OLD DEBTS

One of the earliest efforts of the commission in the pioneer cities of Texas was directed toward wiping out the floating indebtedness of one kind or other, which had been allowed to accumulate, and to begin the early retirement of the city's bonded debt.

The commission in Galveston paid $200,000 of outstanding scrip and due bills, previously issued for labor and supplies.[2] Houston cleared up within the first eight months of its commission rule $400,000 of similar indebtedness.[3] Parsons, Kansas, which when it adopted the small-board plan was issuing warrants stamped "Unpaid for lack of funds," has since taken up $12,000 of these warrants, and has a considerable surplus in the treasury.[4]

Dallas started its new administration with an overdraft in the general fund of $129,575, which the commissioners reduced within twelve months to less than $50,000. The existence of these items of floating debt in so many of our American cities is an indictment of the inefficiency of municipal government heretofore existing. Something has been wrong. Has it been the system of government, or the men who administered it?

The retirement of city bonds has also been vigorously attempted—sometimes a large amount, sometimes a smaller sum having been paid. To retire bonds without increasing taxes, or issuing other bonds, is no easy matter, unless a thorough and scientific study of finances shows where savings can be effected; and the results secured indicate that such study has been given to the details of income, and to their readjustment. San Diego (40,000 population) reduced its municipal debt by $59,200 in the first year under the commission, at the same time lowering the rate of taxation. Gloucester, Mass. (25,000 population), cut off $18,000 of similar indebtedness, during the first twelve months following the installation of the commissioners. Leavenworth retired $20,000 of bonds on which it had been paying interest for the preceding thirty years, besides $119,750 of its one-half share of the county debt. Galveston (37,000 population) in the ten years following September 18,1901, paid $1,124,362 of its bonded debt, including $555,000 of grade-raising bonds. Emporia has similarly paid off over $15,000 since the commissioners were inaugurated. Other smaller cities have retired less amounts.

LIVING WITHIN MUNICIPAL INCOME

So simple a matter as living within the income of the city had never previously received much attention from the councils of many of our cities.

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[2] See statement of board of commissioners, issued 1907.

[3] Figures furnished by commissioner of finance and revenue.

[4] See Beard, Digest of Short Ballot Charters, p. 74519.

If at the end of the year expenditures exceeded revenue, scrip was issued, or bonds; perhaps the tax rate was increased, but that always created unfavorable comment and was avoided if possible. But no sooner had the "board of directors" taken charge of city affairs than a change of policy occurred in many municipalities. The first Des Moines commission found a deficit of $175,000 left by the outgoing administration,—outstanding judgments and other claims. These it met by a bond issue, the amount being too large to be paid out of current revenue, even if increased by economies, and with a clear field went on to meet current expenses. The statement of the auditor, John W. Hawk, shows that at the end of every fiscal year there has been an excess of cash over claims varying from about $15,000 to over $56,000. The installation of modern bookkeeping methods has enabled the commissioners to know where this revenue came from and where it was spent, and in Des Moines, Mankato, Leavenworth, Emporia, and Houston, it preceded the successful placing of the city on a sound financial basis. Harvey S. Chase and Company, the well known accountants of Boston, after a detailed study of the receipts and expenditures in the various departments of the city of Haverhill, Mass., reported that "the running expenses of the city in 1909 have been kept inside of the $12 tax limit. Such a result has not been achieved in Haverhill for many years past. The present administration deserves much commendation for its foresight and vigilance in supervising the city expenditures, and in holding down the totals to the limits indicated. Comparing this result with what happened in previous years when borrowing money for various classes of running expenses was the rule, rather than the exception, the achievement appears to be a notable one." The report recommends further improvements in bookkeeping methods.

These results have been accomplished by reducing operating expenses in some cases, in others, by increasing municipal revenue (without increasing the tax rate), or by both. Galveston cut down the cost of its police department $60,000 in five years, by means of reduced salaries and a decrease in the number of men, methods not feasible, however, for all cities. The waterworks income was increased by $115,000 without material addition to the costs of operation. The offices of the assessor and the collector of taxes were consolidated. In Houston, the positions of controller and secretary were combined, and a saving effected of $2100 a year. Houston also employed the cashier of a bank to act as city treasurer at a salary of $600 a year, as contrasted with a former annual expense of $2,720. City funds on deposit with banks have been made to yield a considerable return in the way of interest; in Cedar Rapids $2,100 during 1908 alone; Houston, $40, 000 in less than five years;[5] in Galveston,—including interest on taxes,—from September 18, 1901, to December 31, 1910, $136,451.[6] Discounts for cash have been utilized in Cedar Rapids, Houston, and other cities, effecting an appreciable economy in each instance. Small items are worth saving, argue the commissioners, as well as large ones.

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[5] Data supplied by commissioner of finance and revenue, up to January 1, 1911.

The cost of city lighting has been lowered in Dallas, from $73 to $60 per arc light per year; in Des Moines from $95 to $75, and then to $65, for all night arcs; in Houston from $80 to $70 per arc per year. Water meters have been installed in many cities, and the wasting of water checked. It is true that this is not confined to cities governed by a commission, but is clearly marked in the cities which are so governed. In Houston, the price of gas has been cut from $1.50 per 1000 cubic feet to $1.15 per 1000 cubic feet.

RATE OF TAXATION

This revision of the current municipal revenues has permitted an actual decrease in the tax rate in many cities. Houston lowered its rate from $2.00 to $1.90, then $1.80, and finally $1.70 per $100. Cedar Rapids reports a slight reduction. San Diego lowered the rate from $1.48 to $1.30 per $100 of valuation. Other cities have had slight reductions. The policy of temporarily reduced taxes to be made up by increases in some later administration—a policy thoroughly unsound—has not found favor with the commissioners, in most instances; and in some cases an increase of taxes has been necessary. This has been due sometimes to the failure of a previous administration to provide sufficient funds to meet the expenditures of the following year or years, as at Kansas City, Kans., and Appleton, Wis., with the result that the first commission has been compelled to raise enough money to meet the deficit of the preceding year as well as current needs. This has required a temporary increase of the tax rate, where not offset by most unusual economies in administration.

INVESTING IN NEW MUNICIPAL PROPERTY

New investments by the city—the wise provision for the future manifested, like any other expanding business concern, in the purchase of additional equipment and property—may prevent an immediate reduction in the rate of taxation, but be sound municipal policy, nevertheless. The acquisition of real estate for new parks or school houses and play grounds—land which can be purchased at a low cost at present, but which is certain to be held at a largely enhanced valuation in the near future; the construction of bridges needed to furnish access to a certain section of the city and to permit its development; the purchase of a municipal lighting plant; all these may be the soundest sort of civic finance, if wisely planned and executed. This is what L. G. Powers, of the Bureau of the Census, refers to when he speaks of "the wise and necessary increase in municipal expenditures which is called for everywhere in recent years by the fact that cities are finding out how, by enlarged public expenditures, their governments can be made to assist the people to added health, comfort, strength and pleasure."[7]

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[6] Data supplied by city auditor.

When the first commission of Cedar Rapids purchased a large island in the Cedar River, near the business heart of the city, for the location of its future city hall and civic center, the expenditure of $106,500 for a site possessing such capacities for usefulness and beauty, and the sale of the old city hall property for $66,500, was an example of the foresight which it had proved impossible to exercise previously on account of the jealousies of ward councilmen. Houston invested $56,000 in new parks in 1907; $18,000, in 1910; $340,000 for eleven new school houses, since 1905; other sums for new bridges and sewers. Des Moines is creating a civic center and a park system which will be the pride of the Iowa Capital and of undoubted practical advantage to that community. Cedar Rapids extended streets, sidewalks, sewers and paving, and built the new Sixteenth Avenue Bridge. San Diego laid forty-one miles of new water mains in the first twelve months under the commission, and paved and graded more streets than during any similar period before. Dallas bought land for parks. Haverhill completed twice as much street paving in the same time and with the same money as formerly. Instances of this sort can be multiplied. This expansion of municipal properties and improvements, while it went on under the former council system, was neither as adequate nor as well planned as it has been under the responsible rule of the "people's directors." There should be no attempt to pave all the streets of the small town with asphalt, nor to supply a costly sewage disposal plant to the village of half a thousand, and just how far to go in this respect should be studied with some care, for each municipality; but the failure of councils to provide improvements to keep pace with the needs of our urban centers has been so glaring a fault in the past that it will be doubtless a long time before there is a general oversupply of municipal facilities in our cities. Such improvements will make the centers of moderate population more healthful, cheerful and habitable, and tend to check the rush to the great cities.

CITY PLANNING

And with a small board, directly responsible to the people, it is much more easy for citizens to secure the consideration and adoption of a comprehensive "city plan." Dallas has laid out a system of improvements along broad lines, which it is already proceeding to develop. Cedar Rapids engaged an expert to study its park system, drives and general features, and outline a comprehensive scheme of city beautifying and convenience, in accordance with which it acquired its island center, as a beginning. Memphis and Chattanooga, Omaha and Oakland, Walla Walla and San Diego, are formulating city plans also. This is not confined to commission governed cities, but the latter have a double advantage over municipalities operating under the old aldermanic form; citizens can secure action more easily and promptly where the governing body is directly responsible to the voters; and a small board is more able to take prompt and effective measures to put such a plan into operation than the larger and more loosely organized council-mayor-and-departments. With a fairly definite city plan outlined, the determination of financial questions becomes vastly simpler, as their bearing upon other phases of municipal development is made clear.

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[7] *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, November, 1911, Budget Provisions in Commission-governed Cities, p. 134.

The results so far secured under the commission form may be said to show in the field of finance a clear improvement over those attained under the former common type of municipal government. Debts have been paid, bonds retired, revenues increased, expenses reduced, and many wise investments made in additions to city property. What is needed now is a city plan—a definite policy well worked out in each field of municipal development, determined upon by citizens after thorough discussion, and started into operation by a governing body responsive to the people and so organized as to insure prompt, continued and efficient action.

WHAT WISCONSIN IS DOING FOR ITS CITIES[1]

BY FORD H. MACGREGOR[2]

The University of Wisconsin

A FEATURE of the recent New York budget exhibit was the likeness of Father Knickerbocker, life size, gazing in wonderment upon some statistics relative to the city of which he is the personification. "New York, the second largest city in the world; population, 5,000,000"—a city with more Jews than there ever were in Palestine; more Germans than in any city in Germany except Hamburg and Berlin; more Bohemians than there are in Prague; and more Italians than there are in Rome. "1,500,000 increase in ten years; equivalent to the combined populations of Boston, Kansas City, and San Francisco." More people respond to the authority of the mayor of New York than did to the first President of the United States; and the employees of the city constitute an army larger than marched with Sherman to the sea. "Area, 327 square miles; 5,000 miles of highway; 2000 miles of sewers; 341 miles of water front." A birth every four minutes; a death every seven minutes; a marriage every eleven minutes. Annual school bill, $30,000,000; $15,500,000 for police protection; $8,250,000 for fire protection; $10,000,000 for charities. Cost of a single election, over $1,050,000. Bonded debt, over $800,000,000. Total budget for 1912, $174,000,000.

This gives but a general idea of the immensity to which our municipal business has grown. The expenditures of Chicago, St. Louis, Philadelphia and Boston are second only to those of New York. Compared with the aggregate expenditures of our cities, the expenditures of our national government shrink to insignificance. Even the construction of a Panama Canal does not outclass in magnitude the project of New York's new water supply. We are only now beginning to take our cities seriously. They have sprung upon us unawares. When our constitution was adopted there were no cities in the modern sense of the word. The largest city in the United States, Philadelphia, had a population of but a little over 30,000, while New York was about the size of Madison. But 3.3 per cent of our population was urban; today over 40 per cent of the entire population of the United States lives in cities of 4000 and over. We are becoming an urban nation. Over 30,000,000 people are living in cities and towns, and that number is rapidly increasing. The American city, with its great problems of administration and business management, has come to be the social, economic, and political problem of the day. The twentieth century belongs to the city.

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[1] An address delivered before the Minnesota Academy of Social Science.

[2] Head of the Municipal Reference Bureau, University of Wisconsin, and instructor in political science at the same institution. He is also the author of an important brochure on *City Government by Commission*, alderman in the city of Madison, secretary of the League of Wisconsin Municipalities and editor of its official organ, *The Municipality*.

Now, ours is an age of specialization, of experts; an age of the division of labor in which the old axiom "If you want a thing done well, do it yourself," has given way to the new one, "If you want a thing done well, get someone to do it, who knows more about doing it than you do"—get an expert. This principle, as a rule of conduct, has been gaining ground for many years in almost every walk of life except, perhaps, the administration of our cities. We have employed architects to devise and supervise our buildings, doctors to cure our ailments, and lawyers to secure our divorces but have elected grocerymen, merchants, blacksmiths, lawyers, professors to run our cities—honest men, but little versed in the affairs of a great city. Probably no other one thing is more responsible for the failure of municipal government in America. We have failed to devise an adequate system of administration, failed to develop a professional class of municipal officials and usually failed to place the blame for its failure where it belongs.

The same has been true in state legislation. We have placed on the bench lawyers of high ability, backed up by a great mass of jurisprudence and precedents, to pass upon laws made by farmers, mechanics, and merchants. The Judge's has been the easy job, for in addition to this great mass of jurisprudence, he has had the advantage of briefs and opinions of trial lawyers on both sides of the case, while to the farmer legislator has been left the task of fitting the laws into the complex social, economic, and political conditions of the times, and into the constitutional framework of the nation in such a way as to stand the test of the courts. All the experts have been on the side of the courts. In other words, talent has has been used to tear down the laws instead of to build them up. It was left for the state of Wisconsin, through the Legislative Reference Department of the Free Library Commission, to place for the first time information and talent behind the legislator.

It has now gone one step further and is attempting to perform through various agencies a similar service for the cities of the state—to collect facts and information on all the varied subjects of municipal activity and municipal government, and to place that material, together with expert service, at the disposal of the city officials and tax payers of the various cities of the state.

The two channels through which it is attempting to perform this service are the state university and the various commissions at the capital—the tax commission, the railroad commission, and the newly created state affairs commission. The most important and most direct of these two channels is the state university, and it is to this one to which I wish to direct attention.

Municipal government is the most difficult of all kinds of government. It is difficult because of the multitudinous functions which it has to perform, and because of the exceedingly complex conditions under which it must perform them. Municipal government touches the citizen at more points and is of more vital importance to his interests than any other branch of government with which he comes in contact. It collects more taxes from him and spends more money. With this enormous concentration of population in cities and the enormous expenditures of money which it envolves, a great number of new problems have arisen. As cities have become crowded, questions of housing and sanitation have appeared. As traffic and business interests have grown, problems of paving, dust prevention, and smoke abatement have been met— problems of water purification and sewage disposal, of milk and food inspection, problems of organization and administration, of accounting, regulation of public services, and special assessments, and a hundred and one other problems and questions incident to growth and the spread of social intercourse. And with every change in the social, economic, and political conditions of the country more of these problems arise. With every invention of a labor saving device, and with every new combination of capital, their number is increased and their complexity multiplied. Great power plants are being developed. Heating plants, water power, and electric plants, and other great industrial enterprises, which use the streets, and furnish services to the citizens of our cities are being added daily, and these must be regulated and controlled. These are great problems, and problems with which the ordinary official, even though diligent, cannot familiarize himself during his short and busy tenure without assistance.

Yet these problems must be solved and solved largely in the same way they have been solved in other cities where similar problems have appeared. Municipal experience must be drawn upon. The mistakes of other cities must be avoided and the benefits of their successful experiments seized upon. London has had a sewage problem for a thousand years; Rome a housing problem for a much longer time. How have these problems been met? How did France solve the dust problem for her macadam roads following the introduction of the automobile? With what success have motorists been taxed for road maintenance in Massachusetts and the East? What cities have bath houses, comfort stations, play-grounds? How much did they cost and what are their plans? How are municipal buildings insured? What is the relative cost of the collection of garbage in different cities, or what is the most successful system of sewage disposal or water purification? What has been done and is being done along these lines in the various cities of the country and of the world? Many of these new problems in America are old ones in Europe.

Now, these are the problems which the city official has to meet, and surely they are among the most complex with which public officials have to deal, for not only do they involve questions of policy, upon which there may be legitimate differences of opinion, but questions of business requiring the highest degree of business sagacity and judgment, where a mistake one way or the other always means the same thing — higher taxes. If these problems are to be solved and solved wisely, if each city is to benefit by the success of other cities and profit by their failures, city officials must have access to all the available information and data to be had upon these various subjects. They must compare notes. For the failure of our municipal government in the past rests not so much with the system, although that has been bad, nor with the character of our officials, although that too has sometimes been bad, as with the fact honest officials have been uninformed. I am among those who believe that the average alderman is an honest and well-meaning man. I think he is an over-abused official in this country. But the fact remains that he lacks information on the questions of city administration, and he has neither the time nor the facilities for getting it. When a question of the milk supply, of a wheel-tax ordinance, or of compelling the gas company to lay its mains before the street is paved, comes up, he is in a quandry to know what to do. Now grocers and merchants are good business men, and given the necessary data and information on which to form judgment upon a municipal proposition, they make the finest kind of councilmen. Heretofore, their judgments have been guesses many a time, and the wonder is that they have guessed as wisely as they have, considering the magnitude of the problems involved. Expert knowledge has been on the side of the private corporations, on the side of the street car companies, the telephone companies, and the gas and power companies. Now, why should men who are successful in their private business make such dismal failures in handling public business? Why should we have a failure in the erection of a garbage crematory or sewage disposal plant? Frequently, because we have not profited by the experience of other cities. We are still experimenting with a type of crematory which was abandoned in England and on the continent more than fifty years ago. Most of these problems have been solved somewhere. Why, then, can't we have the data which will show how they have been solved? This is what the university, through the Municipal Reference Bureau of its extension division aims to do. It aims to place in the hands of the city officials information and data upon all the varied subjects of municipal activity and municipal government—to be a bureau of information, a clearing house for municipal experience and experiments.

For years the list of questions was the only way to get unformation of any kind, and committees of municipal societies have made nuisances of themselves with their numerous attempts at collecting all kinds of information. City officials are constantly imposing upon each other in this way, and newspapers have often taken up the practice. The city official either does not reply, or fills in the blanks with the least possible trouble. The result upon the questioner is either confusion or great danger of misunderstanding and consequent misleading. It is this laborious task that is undertaken by the Municipal Reference Bureau.

But every city cannot maintain a separate municipal reference department. New York, Baltimore, Chicago, Philadelphia, Cincinnati, Milwuakee, Kansas City, and such large cities can and do maintain such departments, but the small and growing city which is in greatest need of such assistance cannot do so. To perform this service for all the cities of the state is the purpose of the Municipal Reference Bureau of the university extension division. It aims to collect and furnish to the citizens of the state information on all subjects of municipal organization and administration, public works, public utilities, and public service rates, municipal employment, paving, sewage disposal, water supplies, and water purification, garbage disposal, parks and playgrounds, housing, street cleaning, street sprinkling, dust prevention, smoke abatement, city planning, civic centers, art commissions, care of city trees, schools, charities and corrections, health and sanitation, accounting methods; comparative statistics, commission government, home rule, civic organizations, markets, comfort stations, and all the other subjects of municipal interest, and to collect and maintain a file of charters and ordinances, and reports of the principal cities of the United States.

This is a tremendous job and takes time, money, and effort. But we are making a start. We are doing something where nothing was done before. The bureau has been in existence but two years, but during that time it has collected material upon all the subjects mentioned and many more and in addition has answered over 2,000 inquires for information on questions relating to municipal problems. The bureau has collected probably the most complete library on commission government which has been collected since that movement started. This information has been compiled and published in a bulletin of the university which is sent free to any citizen of Wisconsin. The first edition was exhausted within three months, but a second edition has already been published. Similar bulletins are now in preparation on municipal fire insurance, city planning, municipal legislation affecting tuberculosis, commission government for counties, wheel tax ordinances, and kindred subjects.

The Municipal Reference Bureau of Wisconsin has exceptional facilities for gathering this information and securing expert advice for the cities of the state. The capitol and university being in the same city, it has advantages not available where these institutions are separately located. Besides unusual library facilities, it not only has the coöperation of the various departments of the university and the expert advice and professional knowledge of professors in their particular lines, but the legislative reference department, the state railroad commission, and the other state departments and commissions at the captiol coöperate to assist cities in the proper solution of these great problems. In this way the bureau is able to give to the municipalities of the state the advice and assistance of experts in practically every branch of municipal administration and the problems of cities, in addition to the information and data collected upon all the varied activities of the city of today.

An illustration will suffice to show how this works out. A small city in the northern part of the state wished to install a sewer system. It hired a young draftsman to design one, paid him for his work, and was about to begin its construction, when the question arose as to whether this system should be a combined sanitary and storm water system or whether there should be a separate system for each. The council being divided, they applied to the Municipal Reference Bureau for advice. The bureau informed them that this would depend upon whether the state board of health required them to purify their sewage or not, and called their attention to the fact that their plans must be approved by the state board of health. This was the first they knew about such a requirement, and when they did submit them, the board of health refused to approve them. In their extremity they turned again to the Municipal Reference Bureau, and that bureau sent Professor Davis, of the engineering department, a hydraulic and sewage expert, to go over the ground and advise them what to do.

The purpose of the bureau is not to give the professional service itself, but to advise what should be done, and to save the cities from making such mistakes as was first made in this instance. It does not compete with the consulting engineer, but advises when a consulting engineer should be secured. Its aid and assistance is absolutely non-partisan, non-political, and free, and the correspondence and coöperation of the cities of the state is heartily solicited. The sole purpose of the bureau is to serve the cities and citizens of the state, and to relieve the city officials from the laborious task of collecting this indispensable information.

Whether this work pays or not is best determined by the demand for it. We are beginning to take our cities seriously. We are beginning to be appalled by the magnitude of their expenditures, and we want to administer them in the best and cheapest way possible. We are tired of needless experimentation; we want to know what other cities have done.

Nor do these demands come from this state alone, but from every state in the Union. Inquiries on the subject of commission government, for instance, have been received in a single morning from cities representing as high as nine states. During the last two weeks the number of requests for our bulletin on Commission Government has averaged from twenty-five to thirty a day.

Although a few different cities have had local municipal reference bureaus for a number of years, Wisconsin was the first state to establish a state bureau for the service of all the cities of the state. But although this bureau has been in operation only two years, it cannot now claim the distinction of being the only one of its kind. The Universities of Illinois and Kansas have already established similar bureaus, and the Universities of Nebraska, Oregon, and Washington have in preparation at the present time, plans for similar bureaus at those universities respectively.

There is a great demand for this kind of information, and the number of such bureaus is bound to increase.

The university, through its extension division, also offers to city officials and to those looking forward to service for the city comprehensive courses of instruction in municipal government, local administration, and municipal and civic progress. It also offers through the lecture department popular lectures on municipal subjects, such as "City Government by Commission," "American Municipal Progress," "City Planning," "City and Town Promotion," and similar subjects.

The activity of the state directly, through its commissions at the capitol, can hardly be said to have been fairly begun. By our public utility law the railroad commission is given a wide supervisory power over our public utilities. It is given power to prescribe accounts for public utilities, and to require the making of annual reports. It also has supervisory power over franchises to a large extent; franchises must be approved by the railroad commission in certain regards. In the case of contests between the city and the public service corporation, the city is given the assistance of the experts of the commission. Whereas formerly all the experts were arrayed on the side of the corporation, now some of the best experts on transportation and allied subjects are to be found on the side of the public. The state is able to employ and retain for the cities men whom the individual city could not afford to retain for itself.

At the last session of the legislature, the state tax commission was given power to require annual reports from cities upon uniform schedules prepared by the commission showing their receipts and expenditures in summary and detail, and to publish these statistics for the benefit of the cities. It was also authorized to design a uniform system of accounts and to install the same in any city desiring the same. This system has been designed and the commission now stands ready to install it in any city that so desires.

The city of Madison has already voted to have the system installed, and other cities will undoubtedly follow in the near future.

The newly created state affairs commission is not given power over cities directly, but it is authorized to coöperate with all public and civic organizations in promoting the economy and efficiency of public administration in all its branches. A movement has already been started to unite all these departments and agencies into a school of municipal efficiency and municipal service, and to secure for the service of the cities the coöperation of all these departments in the most effective manner possible. Not much can be said of this movement as yet, but that it will be crystalized within a very short time is a veritable certainty. We have had too little "home rule" in legislation, and too much "home rule" in administration. What we need now is coöperation, central supervision and control, and the assistance of all the potential forces of the state in the administration of our cities and the solution of our municipal problems. We of Wisconsin believe we are on the right track.

PREFERENTIAL VOTING AND HOW IT WORKS[1]

BY REGINALD MOTT HULL[2]

Cambridge, Massachusetts

THE preferential system of voting is no new thing. For some years students of government have advocated some simple method which would eliminate the primary election, and allow the voters automatically to get behind an acceptable candidate. Methods of cumulative voting and other plans of preferential voting have been suggested, but it remained for Hon. James W. Bucklin of Grand Junction, Colorado, to devise one which was easily administered and which enabled the voter to express his will.

Proceeding upon the Grand Junction plan as a model, Prof. Lewis J. Johnson of Harvard University and others recently drafted a charter for Cambridge which passed the Massachusetts Legislature and only narrowly failed of adoption by the people of Cambridge upon referendum.

The preferential system is believed, however, to have been the chief cause for the hearty support of the strongest backers of this charter, and to have met the opposition of none but those who were opposed to the charter on other grounds. It had the support of practically all the non-politician leaders of local public sentiment and the open opposition of none whose standpat or doctrinaire bias had not been previously well established. Voters at first were inclined to think preferential voting complicated, but this impression was readily dispelled by making mock elections illustrating the system a regular feature of charter meetings.

Spokane, influenced by the favor which preferential voting had received in Cambridge, as well as by its success in Grand Junction, adopted a charter of the same kind and held its first election under it, March 7, 1911, and Pueblo, Colorado, a near neighbor of Grand Junction, has followed suit.

In order to understand some of the advantages of the preferential system, the evils which it eradicates should be briefly enumerated.

The primary was at first abused in the same way that the caucus was by members of one party voting in the primary of the opposite party. With the primary held on the same day, in the same place, with the voter required to announce his party, this evil was stopped but another disadvantage followed, namely, that the voter was not able to support good men on the tickets of both parties. The inexpediency of this is apparent. The average voter who takes part in the primary is a party man. That is the kind of a voter that is surest to come out. The machine thus has an advantage. Independents are deterred from participation in the primary by the necessity of appearing as party men. Moreover if half the voters come out for the primary it is considered a satisfactory number. That vote is divided approximately equally between the two parties; a majority of that half nominates. The candidates, therefore, are likely to be machine men, nominated by a small minority, and all of them unacceptable to the majority of all the voters. In other words, the voter on election day must choose between nominees of mere political machines.

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[1] This paper was omitted from the April issue of the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW because of lack of space. Mr. Hull has availed himself of the opportunity afforded by the delay carefully to revise it and to add some important new data so that it is in many respects a new article.

[2] Reginald Mott Hull is secretary to the Cambridge Tax Payers' Association and assistant in government at Harvard University; he was also assistant secretary of the original Boston finance commission.

The preferential system of voting, in conjunction with the short ballot, nomination by a few petitioners, and the elimination of party designations puts an end to the primary and its attendant evils.

In the method of voting proposed in Cambridge, any fifty voters could secure a place on the final ballot for the name of their nominee for any elective office. Election is by the city at large, to a highly paid, conspicuous position for a three year term, with no party designation, no primary, and, after the first year, with never more than two offices in the city council to be filled annually. Every candidate stands on his own feet,—no boss dictates who shall, or shall not run. The man who can survive this test must win on his own merit and not merely drift into office on a party label unknown to most of his fellow citizens.

The preferential ballot enables the voters of the city in one election to arrive at a majority choice irrespective of the number of candidates, provided there is anyone in the list of candidates acceptable to a majority. If there is none such in the list it is obviously not the fault of the preferential ballot. Besides we get the next best thing and the only thing possible with such a list of nominees, a *legitimate* plurality election; i.e., a plurality election based on a full and free expression of choice by the voters in place of the customary one in which a voter with only one choice must vote against all the candidates but one, though there may be several excellent names in the list.

Beware of the man who tells of an absolute majority system. There is no such thing. What goes by that name is always something which merely chokes off candidates by a primary election or by dropping low men as in some of the older preferential systems and forcing an appearance of majority for what in fact is only a plurality candidate. A man is no true majority candidate unless in a free and open field and with full range of choice by the voter he has the support of the majority. No system of voting will make up for a lack of acquaintance or support. We must, in a word, either have a majority man among the nominees, or put up with a plurality choice in fact, if not in form.

The modern preferential ballot is arranged like the ordinary Australian ballot except that instead of one column for crosses there are three provided, headed "first choice," "second choice," and "other choices" respectively. The voter places a cross in the first column after the name of his first choice for that office, and in the second column after the name of his second choice. If there are others acceptable, and still others quite undesirable, the voter will place a cross after all the other acceptable men in the third column. This means that he not only has the opportunity to vote for all the good men, but also thus against all the undesirable ones.

If some candidate polls a majority of all the votes in the first column, he is elected. Failing that, the first and second choice votes are added together. The candidate, now highest, wins, if he has a majority. If no man can command a majority of the firsts and seconds, meaning that there are a number of nearly equally desirable candidates, the choices in the third column are now added in. The highest man then wins whether he has a majority or not—for he is the man on the list behind whom the greatest number of voters are found to have gathered after each has specified all whom he cares to support.

This will always result in a majority selection unless the list of candidates happens to contain no one on whom the majority can freely and automatically unite—a condition clearly not due to the system of voting.

Under our present system the voter can vote for but one man whatever the number of good or bad candidates, and the chances are that the undesirable man will win, because the machine can prevent the scattering of its vote among a lot of nominees whereas, if the citizens had a real opportunity for free expression a large majority might have gotten together behind some independent candidate. For instance, one man was elected mayor of a Massachusetts city about a year ago by 1800 votes out of 7200; the 5400 other votes being divided nearly equally among four other candidates. The primary partisan system to prevent such mishaps has to choke off, in the interest of harmony, desirable candidates, in order not to risk a party defeat through a split ticket. Then the irony of it is that after the citizen has been deprived of the opportunity of voting for any but machine candidates, blame for the failure of the present system is attributed to the fact that some abstain from voting in the final election!

The present system necessitates the expenditure of large sums of money and a great deal of time and energy to be nominated or elected. Under the preferential system no money or time need be expended in campaigns. A man can be elected on his reputation as is shown by the fact that the president of the Chamber of Commerce was elected to the Spokane city council during his absence from the city.

The result of the first election in Grand Junction, November 2, 1909, is given below.

	FIRST CHOICE	SECOND CHOICE	CHOICES	TOTAL
For commissioner of public affairs				
D. W. Aupperle	465	143	145	753
*W. H. Bannister	603	93	43	739
N. A. Lough	99	231	328	658
*E. R. Lutes	41	114	88	243
Edwin M. Slocumb	229	357	326	912
Thos. M. Todd (elected)	362	293	396	1,051
Total	1,799	1,231	1,326	
For commissioner of water and sewers				
Bostwick W. Vedder (elected)	1,605			
Scattering				
For commissioner of finance and supplies				
*Leon J. Chapman	837			
H. F. Vorbeck (elected)	902			
Total	1,739			
For commissioner of highways				
*John W. Armstrong	397	109	84	580
*Robert M. Hardinge	26	29	33	88
Henry B. Potorf	266	242	267	775
Thos. H. Rader	535	311	130	976
S. J. Scovill (elected)	555	384	236	1,175
Total	1,779	1,075	750	
For commissioner health and civic beauty				
Chas. Gasho	608	125		733
Chas. K. Holmburg (elected)	750	200		950
D. S. Wright	401	343		744
Total	1,759	668		
Total votes cast	1,847	Majority		924

The starred men were the anti-charter and minority candidates, the others the pro-charter and majority candidates.

Omitting reference to an unessential detail in the Grand Junction practice, that of "dropping the low man"—a complication not likely to be widely adopted, and without influence on this result—the decision was drawn from the foregoing figures, according to the principles above stated, as follows:

There being no majority in first choice, the firsts and seconds were added together. Then the leading candidate, Bannister, provided he had had a majority, would have won.

There being no majority by combined firsts and seconds, the first, second and other choices were added together, and Todd, the candidate then leading, won.

Under the usual system the minority would have beaten the majority and elected Bannister.

Under the Des Moines-Los Angeles or Seattle plan, that of second elections, there would have resulted a bitter contest between Aupperle and Bannister, neither of whom had a majority of the people behind them.

Result of second election in Grand Junction, Colorado, November 7, 1911

	FIRST CHOICE	SECOND CHOICE	THIRD CHOICE	TOTAL
For commissioner of finance and supplies				
(P)—Edward J. Olson, out first	307	912		1219
(P)—H. F. Vorbeck,* elected	1405	227		1632
(R)—John R. Wentworth	1123	114		1237
For commissioner of highways				
(R)—L. E. Blackstone	1174	119	52	1345
(P)—W. W. Goodman, out second	330	558	278	1166
(P)—James H. Rankin, elected	1011	326	81	1418
(P)—S. J. Scovill,† out first	255	513	488	1256
For commissioner of health and civic beauty				
(R)—C. H. Crawford, out second	535	265	64	864
(P)—Charles K. Holmburg,* elected	975	241	70	1286
(R)—Frank Thompson	631	169	42	842
(P)—John J. Weigmann	353	653	229	1235
(P)—James Woods, out first	221	297	549	1067
Total vote cast				2936

*Reëlected. †Defeated for reëlection.

P—Progressives. R—Reactionaries.

One weakness of the Grand Junction plan of dropping the low man is apparent from the above schedule. Mr. Scovill running for commissioner of highways was out on first choice being the low man. His total vote, however, was larger than the man who was dropped out on his second choice. It should be noted also that here too as in the first election the reactionary (Mr. Blackstone) would, under the ordinary system of elections, have been elected as he had the highest number of first choices.

This system seems to be free from the worst objections to the previous systems of preferential voting which have attracted no general favor. They overdid the straining for "scientific" accuracy. They were too complicated. They involved the fundamental fallacy in expecting the voter to select not only his first and second choices, but to grade definitely all his others as third, fourth and so on indefinitely.

This assumes a precision of choice in the mind of the voters which cannot possibly exist except in the rarest cases. The Grand Junction plan as proposed in Cambridge seems clearly the one for practical use. It fits the established habits of our voters under our Australian system, is undoubtedly as scientific as the nature of the case warrants, and more perfectly than any other system seriously proposed protects the community from rule by a machine or any other organized minority.

The most serious objection to it is that in a close election a voter might by his second or other choices contribute to the election of his second or other choice man over his first choice man. But as an offset to this risk he has by the same means a greatly increased chance of getting some one acceptable to him instead of no one, supposing his first choice to have proved hopeless. In any case, a man of the type acceptable to the great body of voters is sure to be selected so far as this is humanly possible. Moreover, the counting can be done in the precincts or districts and completed under the conditions most conducive to fairness and calmness. The final return is compiled from tally sheets, and that—the final and most exciting part of the work—can readily be checked up by anybody.

The Grand Junction plan is admirably adapted to the support of all the clearly acceptable candidates as distinct from the objectionable or doubtful. It is assumed that a first choice may be clear in the voter's mind, and possibly a second, but that beyond this niceties in the gradation of choices are illusory. The voter is thus enabled quickly to make his crosses after all the names he cares to support without need of facing the vexatious task of making up his mind whether this man is sixth and that man is seventh choice or vice versa. Rather than go through this process many would doubtless refrain from voting for these men at all—thus robbing them of support which they ought to have and which the Grand Junction system makes it easy to give them.

If a voter wishes to express only one choice, he is, of course, free to do so. It is his duty to do so if there is only one acceptable candidate. But such voters are likely to be organization men bound to some boss or else supporters of a good nominee up for reëlection. In the former case they are almost sure to be a minority, and likely to lose anyway—if not a minority, they will win and ought of course to win. In the other case the probably preëminent claims of the candidate should make him an easy winner in the first column. If he has no such claims the result ought to include the other columns, and the voter who expresses no second choice for fear of hurting his first one puts his candidate's interest ahead of the public interest provided there are other good nominees and provided any of the rest are thoroughly bad.

The Grand Junction system, with the minimum of turmoil and expense, selects from a large number of nominees a safe choice in a manner far more likely to reflect the calm, candid judgment of the voters than either the second election system or such alleged majority selection as is arrived at in the pulling and hauling of repeated balloting at a nominating convention. The voter has only to make a few crosses on a ballot, put the ballot in the box and await results. The result is known before the excitement can become very bitter. Contrast this with second elections or repeated ballotings!

An extraordinary nonsensical objection to the Grand Junction result should be mentioned. It seems incredible that it should influence anybody, but the politicians make it a serviceable talking point among their followers. They say: "There were 3305 votes cast against Todd at Grand Junction and only 1051 for him and he ought not to have won." Of course, the absurdity of this contention can be seen from the fact that there were only 1847 voters in the entire city of whom 1051 had expressed their preference for Todd. Moreover, even granting as a concession to this type of mind for argument's sake that there were 3305 votes against Todd, there were even more against each of the other candidates—"3617 against" Bannister, the favorite of those who argue this way, to 739 for him.

The fact is there were only 794 voters (the difference between Todd's total vote and the total number of voters) who did not want Todd for mayor, and of the 1155 who put in a first-choice vote for a pro-charter candidate 1051 voters automatically came to agreement on Todd.

Another advantage of the preferential system is drawn from this election in Grand Junction. Campaigns will be carried on with less mud-slinging than in former days. Every decent candidate will bid for the second and third choices of the friends of the other candidates by abstaining from unjust criticisms. But if there is a sharp line between enforcement and non-enforcement of law, or any other definite issue of good and bad government, all the candidates of each class will freely criticize those of the other class. Such lines will be sharply drawn. Probably each side will be able to find two or three or more candidates in the list who will adequately represent its point of view. The majority will be able automatically to get behind some man who commands their confidence.

Ballots cannot readily be spoiled. If a man marks more than one choice for any one man, only the highest of them is counted, and he does not lose his vote for that man. If a voter marks first choices for two men that means that he does not show which of the two he prefers and each receives one second choice. If he marks more than two first or two second choices, those votes are credited in the "other choices." Whatever preferences the voter unmistakably expresses will be counted.

Anyone drafting a charter along the lines of the Cambridge charter ought to consult the Acts and Resolves of Massachusetts, 1911, Chapter 531, especially sections 48 to 53, inclusive.

In October, 1909, Mayor N. S. Pratt, of Spokane, appointed a committee of seventeen citizens to report upon the general plan of a new charter. After five months' investigation this committee advised a commission charter and recommended that a board of freeholders be elected to frame such a charter. The city council objected to this. After petitions had been filed, the citizens, by mandamus proceedings, compelled the city council to appoint September 27, 1910, for the freeholders' election. This committee submitted the new charter which embodied the Grand Junction plan of preferential voting with the Cambridge modifications, except that the commissioners are not elected to a specific office, as in Grand Junction and in the proposed Cambridge charter. The Spokane charter was adopted by popular vote December 28, 1910 and the first election was held March 7, 1911.

The circumstances and results of this notable election are in brief as follows:

Population of the city 104,000 (in 1910).

Twenty-five signatures nominate.

Nomination for city council of five without designation of specific office to be held.

Council elects one of its number mayor, and distributes departments among its members.

Four year terms. Salaries $5000.

Number of candidates, 92; arranged alphabetically on ballots.

Number of ballots cast 22,058. (Women vote.)

The following letter from a responsible citizen of Spokane, gives further information:

March 21, 1911.

. . . It is the common consent that our election has given us a most superior body of men. It is common remark that it has given us the best commission in the United States.

C. M. Fassett, public utilities commissioner. In ideals he is a man of the highest type; in capacity he stands among the best men of the west. He has through his own efforts acquired a fortune and is not making any personal profit from his $5000 salary. He was elected during his absence from the city. He is president of the Spokane Chamber of Commerce.

W. J. Hindley, mayor, is regarded as one of the strong men of the northwest—an able orator, of intense force, activity, and virility.

Z. A. Hayden, public safety, is a very successful lumber man and in the past managed a series of large lumber concerns throughout the northwest—a very successful man and a man of high ideals.

D. C. Coates, public works, formerly lieutenant governor of Colorado, a member of the freeholders charter committee, father of the local preferential system, a member of the typographical union, a socialist, because he has ideals and sympathizes for the laboring man he is called "radical;" but we, formerly his opponents, now know him and admire him very much. His training as presiding officer of the Colorado senate, aids him very much in expediting the proceedings of the council . . . .

Robert Fairley, finance, for years city comptroller, an honest straightforward man, familiar with the finance department, and on account of his general familiarity with the city government of the past, of great help in the period of transformation . . . .

The whole city is enthusiastic over the change and over our new city officials. I have not heard of a single criticism of the preferential system. The people are satisfied with it. It has "delivered the goods" they think. The only men of those among the first twenty candidates who were representative of the liquor interests were Funk and Ome, who also carried a large labor and special interests vote. The liquor men were helpless and felt unable to control the system . . . .

Even with a large list of candidates, the voters were not confused. The fear of too large a number of candidates is exaggerated. Moreover, it is not undesirable in a free open campaign before the people. The candidates went before the people. Hundreds of meetings were held over the city. We discussed candidates day and night; the large number of candidates caused almost every precinct to be represented by one candidate at least, and caused a local lively interest and discussion that was of great value. The people generally were inspired by a desire to get the best men and they succeeded. We are all proud of the high tone of the campaign and our present pride and satisfaction will not permit any other kind of a campaign hereafter. The undesirable and improper candidates found their level.

At the general municipal election held on March 7th, the following instructions were officially given.

To vote for any person, mark a cross [X] in a square [☐] to the right of the name.

Vote first choice for five candidates, or ballot will be void. Second and third choice is not compulsory.

Vote only five first choices, and only five second choices.

Vote as many third choices as you wish.

Vote your first choices in the first column.

Vote your second choices in the second column.

Vote in the third column for all the other candidates whom you wish to support.

Do not vote more than one choice for any one candidate, as only the one choice will count.

All distinguishing marks make the ballot void.

If you wrongly mark, tear, or deface this ballot, return it and obtain another from the election officers.

Spokane, Washington

Five commissioners to be elected

CITY COMMISSIONERS	FIRST CHOICE	SECOND CHOICE	ADDITIONAL CHOICES	TOTAL
S. A. Anderson	4,661	1,734	617	7,012
*David C. Coates	6,272	861	392	7,525
W. J. Doust	2,752	2,544	1,169	6,465
N. W. Durham	4,604	1,552	494	6,650
*Robert Fairley	12,779	1,692	547	15,418
*C. M. Fassett	6,284	1,815	459	8,558
Leonard Funk	4,007	1,523	564	6,094
F. M. Goodwin	3,243	1,753	722	5,718
*Zora E. Hayden	4,260	2,400	734	7,394
*William J. Hindley	7,513	1,755	628	9,896
J. Grier Long	3,891	2,802	703	6,693
M. J. Luby	4,304	2,170	825	7,299
N. S. Pratt	3,365	1,587	651	5,603

*Successful candidates.

There were 92 names on this ballot; only the highest are given. The smallest vote was 143. None of the names of the men elected stood near the head of the ballot.

The first election under the preferential system in Pueblo was held on November 7. According to the local press the men elected are capable, efficient, favorable to the new charter and apparently not in league with the special interests. Under the Pueblo charter the voter is allowed but one first, one second and one third choice. A fatal weakness in this is that in case there were six good candidates and one machine candidate, the good candidates would be likely to split the decent vote in half and the machine man be elected by a minority. Another disadvantage is that there may be more than three good men deserving support, in which case the expression of the will of the voter is hampered.

All five of the commissioners elected at this election required all three choices to give them the necessary 4117 votes to elect. There were 55 candidates for the five commissionerships; 18 for three civil service commissionerships; 14 for the three water trustees. The total vote cast was 8,234. In addition to the five commissioners three civil service commissioners and three trustees of the water works were elected at the same election. The vote was as follows:

Pueblo, Col.

Summary of successful candidates

City commissioners

CANDIDATES	FIRST CHOICE	SECOND CHOICE	THIRD CHOICE	TOTALS
Donnelly	3,256	771	424	4,451
Lannon	1,714	1,125	613	3,452
Duke (Thos.)	2,166	821	437	3,419
Prevost	1,667	1,106	514	3,287
Burton	1,987	642	437	3,066
Civil service commissioners				
King	3,410	496		3,906
Doertenbach	2,045	868	310	3,223
Campbell (J. E.)	2,104	636	317	3,057
Trustees water works				
Reno	1,711	398		2,109
Vieth	1,154	350	210	1,714
De Tienne	1,200	314	154	1,668

Majority first choice votes 1822.

The Grand Junction system of preferential voting is devised for the sole purpose of protecting the rights of the majority in the election of officers. Our worst evils in city government have come from the ease with which selfish minorities have been able to control.

There is but one thing which a majority of the citizens want and that is efficient business like administration of the city's business, and responsiveness to the popular will whether it be for retrenchment or expansion. Elections reflecting the will of the majority can be attained by direct and easy nominations, the elimination of the primary and by the preferential system of voting. Responsiveness to the people is secured partly by these and partly by the initiative, referendum and recall. Of course, neither the preferential system nor any other system of voting will by itself alone, bring about the best government, although the lack of it may prevent the best results. Neither will a combination of these and other good features insure good government if the people are apathetic to their own best interest. But the preferential system, direct legislation and other modern ideas will make it reasonably easy for citizens to get the best government of which they are capable. More than this no form of government can do.[3]

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APPENDIX

For the further elucidation of Mr. Hull's paper its discussion at the hands of the members is herewith given.

LIEUTENANT SHAW: (Mr. Dana in the chair): Will Mr. Hull kindly inform me if, in considering what kind of ballot to adopt, the method of rejecting any because it was too complicated was considered?

MR. HULL: We felt that the Grand Junction system combined in the best way simplicity of ballot, ease of understanding, and simplicity of computation by the election officers.

LIEUTENANT SHAW: If the mixed population of Johannesburg and Pretoria has very successfully worked the Hare-Spence system, why could not Cambridge do so?

MR. HULL: Perhaps it could. The Hare-Spence system however drops the lowest man. In the Grand Junction system, everybody stands equally all the way through.

LIEUTENANT SHAW: What is the method of nomination in Spokane? How many names are required?

MR. HULL: Twenty-five names. Ninety-five men were nominated in Spokane; three dropped out before the election by declining to accept renominations.

DR. HART: In ordinary elections the children of light are sometimes successful by the elimination of the children of the world; in other words, they get in by the splitting of the predominant party. Now, in this matter, it seems to me that the children of the world could elect either one of their candidates against the children of light.

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[3] The writer desires to record that in preparing this paper he has had the close coöperation and counsel of his colleague, Prof. Lewis J. Johnson, who has had much experience with popularizing preferential voting, and to whom he acknowledges his indebtedness.

Mr. Hull: That may be, but I have tried to beat this system; I have usually tried it this way, divide the groups into equal parties less one; the minority is organized as the crooks, and the majority as "goo-goos," as we call them in Boston, and you can never get a crook elected until one of the goo-goos casts a vote for one of the crooks.

Mr. Harold S. Buttenheim: I had a conversation with the commissioner of public works of Spokane, and brought up that question with him, and he said that he considered that the very strongest point in favor of the preferential system. He said that men who voted according to the dictates of any political machine, if they were to go to the polls to vote for a particular man, and pick out five men and vote for them, if those men had a second choice, their vote for second choice would often be along the right line. There was nothing that could prevent their making two choices or three choices, and he said that some men would make better selections than you would suppose from their adherence to the machine, and that they felt in Spokane that it had worked out that way, notwithstanding the long list of candidates to be voted on. I might also say in connection with the method of nominating in Spokane and other places where there is a long list, there is a method in use in the Canadian cities by which, instead of a lot of people being voted for who had no possible chance, every candidate who gets his name on the ballot has to deposit fifty dollars with the election officials with the understanding that if he polls a certain percentage of the votes his money will be returned, and if he does not it will not be returned to him. In that way they eliminate a great many candidates who have no earthly chance.

Mr. Porter: I think the long list of candidates is not a profound danger. In England, where it is very easy to nominate anyone, they ordinarily have a very short list of candidates. I think after the system has been tried a few years the futility of a great many men being on the ballot will be shown, and they will not be nominated. No system has been devised that will prevent a man of the politician type being elected by the organized majority, but the idea of the voting systems is to keep the man who has an organization from coming in on a minority, which they are doing constantly. They have been able to do it heretofore by the vote of the good men being scattered among several candidates, and the man who is organized wins.

Mr. F. S. Spence (Toronto): The statement made by the gentleman about the Canadian cities is partially correct and partially not. We have a statute that provides that in parliamentary elections a candidate must put up $200, and if he does not poll half of the vote of the successful candidate, the money stays where he puts it, in the possession of the government. If he does, the money is returned. That only applies to parliamentary elections; there is no such restriction about municipal matters. In municipal matters, where there is the freest possible nomination, we never have any trouble from the superfluity of candidates. In our last election there were three candidates to be elected in every ward; we had elections in every ward, and the highest number nominated in any ward was five.

With regard to this preferential voting, of course it is mathematically correct when you come to elect candidates to a single office; but when you come to elect three or four candidates, like aldermen in a ward, or two or three members in a constituency, then it leaves a great deal to chance in the way you dispose of the surplus ballots.

Lieutenant Shaw: Mr. Spence's remark suggests a difficulty that does not exist in the Hare-Spence system, that is, the great chance in disposing of the surplus vote. There is a mathematical way of arranging that so that certainly the second and third choices will be distributed according to the size of the district; and in what is known as the district the Hare-Spence system will invariably give the minority representation exactly according to voting strength. That is exact mathematical justice.

BALLOT ILLUSTRATING PREFERENTIAL VOTING

INSTRUCTIONS. — To vote for a candidate make a cross (**X**) in the appropriate space.

Vote your FIRST choice in the FIRST column.
Vote your SECOND choice in the SECOND column.

Vote ONLY ONE FIRST choice and ONLY ONE SECOND choice for any one office.

Vote in the THIRD column for ALL THE OTHER CANDIDATES whom you wish to support.

DO NOT VOTE MORE THAN ONE CHOICE FOR ONE PERSON, as only one choice will count for any candidate.

If you wrongly mark, tear or deface this ballot return it and obtain another.

ONE MAN TO BE ELECTED FOR EACH OFFICE

Supervisor of Administration (Mayor)	First Choice	Second Choice	Other Choices
Charles E. Hughes			
Champ Clark			
John A. O'Gorman			
Nelson W. Aldrich			
Richard Croker			
Robert L. Owen			
Joseph W. Folk			
Robert M. LaFollette			
Woodrow Wilson			
William J. Bryan			
Chauncey M. Depew			
Boies Penrose			
Theodore Roosevelt			

Supervisor of Finance			
Bourke Cockran			
Leslie B. Shaw			
John A. Sullivan			
Nathan Matthews			

Supervisor of Public Works	First Choice	Second Choice	Other Choices
Guy C. Emerson			
John Mitchell			
Stephen O'Meara			

Supervisor of Health			
H. W. Wiley			

Supervisor of Public Property			
Gifford Pinchot			
Richard A. Ballinger			

Mr. Hull: As I look upon it, the ballot in Spokane is the most democratic thing I have ever heard of. To have a list of ninety-two candidates, where there are perfectly free nominations, means the utmost democracy. No man is dependent upon the machine, no man is dependent upon a boss. A man goes before the whole people, he has got to win on his merits, and where there are very few offices to be filled, as will be the case in Cambridge after the first year, you have the voters' attention fixed on the men and he is bound to pick out the best man. In regard to the number of men on the ballot, what is the use of going on the ballot when you are going to be snowed under? There is no advertising value in that today.

Another thing, this preferential system of voting is intended to represent a majority which so far has never been represented. We have plenty of minority representation. I have not pretended to cover minority representation; what the preferential system is intended to do is to represent a majority of the people, who have never been, so far as I can see, heretofore adequately represented. Anyone who is interested enough to look at the report of the Royal Commission appointed to inquire into the electoral system, and also Mr. Bucklin's report of the Grand Junction system, and the Spokane charter, will find this worked out so as to show how mathematically accurate these things are.

Chairman Dana: I will say that in Massachusetts we have had since 1889 a system by which independent candidates can be nominated by only fifty signatures, and we have not suffered from unduly long ballots.

SHORT ARTICLES

THE NEED FOR A PUBLIC UTILITIES BILL IN PENNSYLVANIA

MUCH is being said nowadays about the proper exercise of the police power and the necessity for the enactment of a certain class of legislation which makes for the health, the safety, the convenience, the morals and the general welfare of the people. I am in entire sympathy with such legislation. And Pennsylvania today has many such humane and progressive laws upon her statue books; and more in contemplation.

Many of these statutes may well be amended and extended; or, in some cases, repealed and a new statute enacted, framed in the light of our present enlarged knowledge and experience of the evils and the desired remedies.

This observation is especially applicable to the Act approved in May, 1907, providing for the appointment of a railroad commission and prescribing its powers and duties. In point of fact the "powers" of this commission are unworthy of the name. They are simply recommendatory.

Because of the impotency of this statute and my belief that Pennsylvania should have a *real* public utilities bill, I publicly declared, prior to my election, that I was in favor of the passage of a proper utilities bill. I am still in favor of the passage of such a measure.

Public service corporations are the creatures of the state. The commonwealth grants to such corporations special rights, franchises and privileges; and it is no longer debatable that in return for such grants, the commonwealth may justly require of such corporations the performance of special duties, chief among which are that they shall render and furnish to the public, safe, adequate and sufficient service and facilities; and that they shall charge for such service only just, reasonable and non-discriminatory rates and fares.

To this end, therefore, it is proper, in the interest of the public, that there should be a duly appointed administrative body or commission, vested with the power and authority to supervise and regulate all public service companies doing business within this commonwealth. Such commission should be authorized to act either upon its own initiative or upon complaint of any citizen alleging the rendering of inadequate service or the charging of exorbitant rates or the non-performance or violation of any of its duties under the law. And the supervision and regulation of such companies, it has always seemed to me, should cover or extend to their incorporation, consolidation and reorganization.

In this connection my further thought is that a public service bill should provide for the supervision and regulation by the commission of the issuance of the stocks and bonds of such corporations, not only at the time of their creation, but particularly, under our existing statutes, upon the reorganization of such companies after foreclosure sale. Such a requirement would likely end the crying evil of over capitalization and "watered stock," and insure the practical enforcement of the provision of the constitution forbidding the issuing of stocks and bonds except for money, labor done or money or property actually received, and making null and void all fictitious increase of stock or indebtedness. If the commission be required to give its certificate of valuation and approval before the issuance of such stock and bonds, the result will be to give the commonwealth's stamp of validity and *full value* to all stock and bonds of such corporations issued by Pennsylvania companies.

Manifestly, however, if the regulation and supervision of such public service companies is to count, the commission must be invested with full power and authority, after proper investigation and hearing, to make, not merely "recommendations" but findings, rulings and *orders* which shall be binding upon the corporation and all its officers, directors and agents: Therefore to this end, the commission must be authorized and empowered to enforce obedience of such orders in the courts, not only by injunction, mandamus and other well known legal proceedings, but also to punish, as for contempt, any persons who refuse to obey its subpoenas requiring their presence or the production of books and documents at its hearings; as well as to impose fines and penalties upon the corporation and its officers and agents for disobedience of such orders and decrees. In this way only can the orders and rulings of this commission be made effective.

I repeat the present commission has no such powers.

Of course it must not be lost sight of that such public service corporations are, nevertheless, in a certain sense, private corporations; that is, in their relation to their stock-holders, who are entitled to a reasonable return or dividend on their investment in the capital stock of the company.

In this view, our supreme court has said that public service corporations in Pennsylvania are entitled to look for a rate of return, if their property will earn it, not less than the legal rate of interest; and that a system of charges that yields no more income than is fairly requisite to maintain the plant, pay fixed charges and operating expenses, provide a suitable sinking fund for the payment of debts and pay a fair profit to the owners of the property, cannot be said to be unreasonable. This must be taken, however, with the qualification or proviso that such corporations must in any and every event, render proper service at reasonable rates and perform all their duties to the public. The performance of such duties is a first consideration or pre-requisite; and must always take place as a condition precedent to the declaration and payment of dividends.

Moreover, in framing such a public service law, care should be taken that its provisions are not so drastic as to affect or retard the proper business developments of these companies. The interest of the patrons or consumers of the companies, i. e., of the patronizing public, must, of course, be considered as we have indicated; also must the interest of the investors, i. e., the stockholders and bondholders. And lastly in the framing of such a statute, it should be borne in mind, in the interest of the state and the general welfare of all the people therein, that the successful business development of such public service companies is an important and essential element in the industrial life of the Commonwealth and of her prosperity and eminence as a state; and in this regard appeals to, concerns and affects every citizen within her borders.

John K. Tener.[1]

LIGHTER TAXATION OF BUILDINGS AS A HOUSING REFORM MEASURE

ONE measure which the New York Committee on Congestion of Population presented at Albany this year aroused the keenest discussion and will no doubt continue next winter to be one of the livest issues before the state legislature. It is novel in that it seeks to relieve the overcrowding of New York tenements through a change in the city's tax laws.

As is generally known, the land and housing problems in New York are in some ways more acute than in any other great city. It is not only that the acreage population in certain sections is the densest in the world. Prevailing rents are so high that most families find from a third to a fourth of their entire income going to the landlord. This causes the crowding of large numbers into a few rooms, often dark and unsanitary, and obliges a considerable proportion of the poorest tenement dwellers to bring a shifting stream of boarders into the family group.

To the great majority of New York City parents it is most difficult if not impossible to provide wholesome and adequate homes for their children. The prevalence of juvenile delinquency, the 28,000 new cases of tuberculosis every year and the yearly expenditure required by the city of over $10,000,000 in its public institutions for the dependent and incapacitated are evils flowing largely from this source.

For ten years the city has had a tenement house law which prescribes for new buildings certain requirements as to lighting, size of rooms, fire proofing and sanitation. About one million persons—or one-fifth of the population—now live in tenements built under this law and are measurably benefited by its safeguards. But if these restrictions have had any effect upon room crowding it has been in the direction of accentuating the problem. Building has been made more expensive, building operations have been thus discouraged, the pressure of a rapidly growing population upon available housing facilities has intensified and rents have been increased.

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[1] Governor of Pennsylvania.

The congestion committee agrees that the present restrictive legislation is necessary. It has, in fact, proposed further measures along the same line, especially one for restrictions in the height of buildings varying for different districts or zones. The committee believes however that the tendency of restrictive legislation already referred to should be balanced by such a change in taxation policy as will tend to encourage building and to moderate rents.

The change recommended is the gradual reduction of the tax rate on all buildings until at the end of five years it shall be only one-half of the rate on all land in the city. As land and improvements are already assessed separately, the only change would be in the rate.

In the thickly settled districts there are thousands of worn out buildings which are really unfit for occupancy. The owners hesitate to replace them with modern structures because, after bearing the heavy initial expense, they will be severely penalized in increased tax bills. Under the proposed act that deterrent penalty would be appreciably lightened. In the same way less discouragement would be placed in the path of the manufacturer who desires to move his industry out of the tenement sweatshops and to house his employees in substantial and suitably located factories.

Even in the borough of Manhattan there are some eight thousand parcels of unimproved land and an equal number with merely nominal improvements. In outlying boroughs thousands of acres are being kept out of use in anticipation of the rise in value. Obviously the proposed transference of tax burdens from improvements to land would increase the carrying charges on such parcels and incline the owners to improve or to sell.

Since the total land values of the city are nearly double the total building values, the tax ratio of one to two would have to be reached by a considerable lowering of the building rate together with a much slighter increase in the land rate. It would mean about four dollars per thousand more on land and about seven dollars per thousand less on buildings. With the exception of a few sections such as lower Broadway, Fifth Avenue and Times Square, any property suitably improved for the district in which it is located would have its tax bills reduced.

Building of individual homes in the outlying sections would be encouraged and this would help to relieve the pressure at the centers of dense population. The owner, or prospective owner, of a $2000 lot with $5000 improvement—a fairly typical case—could figure on paying $8 per year more on his lot as against $35 less on improvements, or a net yearly saving of $27.

The main objection seems to be to the very principle of treating the two forms of property differently. Everyone knows, to be sure, that wise governments do make discriminations. In custom duties they make different tariffs for necessaries and for luxuries. They have one social purpose in putting a heavy tax on liquor stores and another purpose in exempting churches and hospitals. If they tax sales of corporate stock they do not therefore tax sales of merchandise. To give some attention to the social effects and to make some effort to determine upon whose shoulders the burden ultimately rests is recognized as being essential for reaching any sound basis.

But lands and buildings have long been dealt in together under one undiscriminating term, as "real estate." For this reason many fail to see that no two forms of property are governed by more essentially different—by more nearly opposite—economic laws. This needs to be made clear if an intelligent policy of taxation is to be secured. Some of the more obvious differences may be pointed out here.

1. The quantity of land within a given area is practically fixed by nature. The number of buildings varies greatly from year to year.

2. A high tax rate on buildings tends to check the buildings supply. High taxation of lands has no such effect. In fact, land held out of use is brought into the active market.

3. Taxes in buildings are reflected in rents. Heavier taxes means fewer buildings and higher rents. That is, improvement taxes are paid by the tenants. Land taxes must be paid by the owner; they cannot be shifted.

4. Buildings values are produced and increased by the industry and enterprise of the individual owner. Land values arise almost wholly from the growth of the community and from its pressing need of places in which to live and work. New York land values go up over $700 for every person added to the census rolls.

5. Buildings tend to deteriorate from year to year; land tends to grow more valuable. With all the immense labor and wealth put into New York building operations in the last century, the total building values are now little more than half of the total land values which have been created by the marvellous growth of the town.

6. Increase in the actual, tangible useful wealth within the city is checked by a tax that discourages building. A tax on land does not have this effect.

7. Expenditure of public revenues—especially upon schools, docks and other permanent improvements—causes a direct increase in land values. Building values are not benefited in the same way.

Raymond V. Ingersoll [1]

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[1] Chairman of the New York Congestion Committee.

PERIODICAL PUBLICATIONS ON MUNICIPAL AFFAIRS

THE appearance of the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW makes timely a survey of the publications already devoted to municipal affairs. In this article an attempt is made to classify and characterize briefly the private periodical publications of the United States which deal with the problems confronting American cities. No mention is made of publications in languages other than English or of periodicals published in Canada and England. Neither does the present article include periodical publications issued by the cities themselves. Annual publications are also omitted and, with possibly one or two exceptions, nothing is said of periodicals no longer current. Even within the field thus narrowed down it is not claimed that this list is complete. It is believed, however, that all important titles are referred to in one or another of the eight classes or groups into which municipal periodical publications are, for our present purposes, divided.

1. The first of these groups includes periodicals which deal with municipal affairs in general and which are of much more than local interest and importance. After *Municipal Affairs* was discontinued this class was practically unrepresented until the *American City* (New York) appeared in September, 1909. This attractive monthly treats of the city in its external aspects chiefly. The NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW thus enters a clear field and will undoubtedly stand forth as the leading representative of this first class.

2. To the second class may be assigned the organs of various state and local municipal leagues. *The City Hall-Midland Municipalities* (Marshaltown, Iowa) is probably the most widely known in this class. This monthly review serves as the official bulletin of the League of American Municipalities, the League of Iowa Municipalities, the League of Nebraska Municipalities and the League of Kansas Municipalities. It contains some articles of permanent value, along with many shorter and less important ones, and gives much space to the programmes and proceedings of the leagues which it represents. *The Municipality* (Madison, Wisconsin), the bimonthly organ of the League of Wisconsin Municipalities, is chiefly valuable for Wisconsin cities. It does, however, publish a few valuable articles of general interest. *Pacific Municipalities* (San Francisco, California), published monthly as the official organ of the League of California Municipalities, although addressed primarily to California city officials is also of more than local significance, especially in matters of sewage disposal, sanitation and fire prevention. The *Municipal League News*, representing the Municipal League of Seattle, is a vigorous four-page weekly.

3. Similar in many respects to the publications just mentioned are the official organs of local civic bodies organized to promote good government, pure politics and efficiency and decency in municipal affairs generally. Of this type no worthier representative can be cited than the *Albany Citizen,* formerly published by the Civic League of Albany, an organization formed, "To create public sentiment in favor of a better administration of public affairs; to bring enlightened public sentiment into action; to secure the nomination and election of honest and efficient public officers; to labor for the enactment and strict enforcement of laws that will make for the moral and political cleanliness of the city; and to encourage every movement that will make Albany a better place in which to live." In realizing this aim *The Albany Citizen* must have been an efficient means and one notes with regret that it has "ceased publication," a fate constantly threatening publications of this sort. The City Club of Philadelphia aims, among other things, to "conduct a campaign of education by giving efficient publicity to those facts that will help create an intelligent public opinion on municipal questions" and thus to aid in the betterment of municipal conditions in Philadelphia. This "efficient publicity" is promoted by the weekly *Bulletin,* the chief feature of which is the publication of an address delivered at its Saturday luncheon by some person qualified to speak on municipal topics of special interest in Philadelphia. Many of these addresses, it is needless to say, are of considerable value in the literature of municipal affairs. The City Club of Chicago publishes a *Bulletin* of much the same character. The City Club of New York also issues a small monthly *Bulletin* of two to four pages, but does not print full reports of its Saturday luncheon addresses. Although it contains some notes on important pending municipal questions, the *Bulletin of the City Club of New York* is intended to serve as a report upon club interests only; it does not aim to touch matters in which the club has not taken some part. *The Civic Bulletin,* published bi-monthly by the Civic League of St. Louis, likewise confines itself to matters in which the League is active. On the other hand, the *Civic League Bulletin,* of Newport, Rhode Island, while especially concerned with local problems, endeavors to bring to the attention of members of the League interesting municipal experiments and solutions elsewhere. *City Affairs,* published monthly by the Good Government Association of Boston, is designed to keep its members in touch with municipal questions and especially to furnish information in regard to the records of candidates for office and other data of importance to the independent voter. In this class of municipal publications are to be found at least three conducted by women's organizations. The *Bulletin* of the Woman's Municipal League of New York is of interest chiefly to members of the various branches of the League, the purpose of which is "to promote among women an intelligent interest in municipal affairs, and to aid in securing permanent good gov-

ernment for the city of New York without regard to party or sectional lines." *The Civics Bulletin* is published "from time to time" by the Civic League of Norwalk, Connecticut, a woman's club "organized for concerted effort toward making Norwalk a perfect city." *The Civic Club Bulletin* published monthly during the club year by the Women's Civic Club of Philadelphia is a very creditable club organ.

4. One may treat in a separate group all publications purely local in character, though not nominally published as the organ of some civic or reform organization. *The Citizens Bulletin* of Cincinnati desires to contribute to the reform of municipal conditions in Cincinnati. It regularly summarizes the council proceedings and reprints much from other periodicals for the benefit of the local constituency. *The Common Good of Civic and Social Rochester* (Rochester, New York) is a most interesting publication. One gets from it the feeling that it reflects an awakened social conscience and heralds an advanced movement for better municipal conditions. *The Public Officials Magazine* (Terre Haute, Indiana) when started in January, 1910, was described on its outside cover as "a monthly magazine devoted to the news of the public officials of Indiana." Although these words have now been dropped, the paper is still essentially for local circulation. More space is given to the subject of good roads than to any other topic. Signed articles are usually by Indiana state or local officials. *City Life and Municipal Facts* is a weekly controlled by the Allied Real Estate Interests of New York City. Local municipal affairs, within a limited range, are treated in a popular way. In New York City the number of public employees, municipal, state and federal, especially in the police and fire departments, is large enough to support two weekly newspapers. The *Civil Service Chronicle and Police Chronicle* has no special value in the study of the larger problems of municipal affairs. It aims to promote the interests of civil service employees, especially in the police and fire departments. *The Chief* is another weekly that lays special emphasis on matters of interest to the personnel of the police and fire departments.

5. A survey of the periodical literature touching municipal affairs would be incomplete without mention of certain publications not primarily concerned with municipal problems. *The American Political Science Review* publishes considerable matter of current interest along the line of municipal topics. *Good Government* (New York), the official journal of the National Civil Service Reform League, is naturally of interest wherever municipal civil service reform is an issue. *The Government Accountant* (Washington, D. C.) has a regular department of municipal accounting, conducted by an expert accountant. *The Boston Common,* while not in any strict sense a municipal weekly, should exert an important influence for better municipal conditions in Boston. It is distinctly "progressive" in its policies and quite unique as regards its management.

6. Another class of periodicals consists of those which exist primarily to advance the city's commercial interests. They often take a hand in the discussion of local municipal problems, however, for enlightened business interests always demand good government and a clean, healthful and attractive city. Publications which exist primarily for "boosting" purposes thus contribute to the literature of municipal affairs. *The Municipal Development Magazine* of Chicago is engaged in promoting the organization of chambers of commerce and business interests generally. The monthly *Board of Trade Journal* of Portland, Oregon, is purely commercial; *Progress*, published by the Atlanta chamber of commerce, is "boosting" Atlanta and the South in general; and through *Greater Dayton*, the local chamber of commerce is booming Dayton. *The Board of Trade and Engineering Journal*, Scranton, Pennsylvania, is local in interest and handles municipal affairs from the business viewpoint. The *Providence Board of Trade Journal*, while devoted in the main to promoting the business interests of Providence, does publish a few articles on municipal matters and has an ably edited "welfare department." *The Worcester Magazine*, published monthly by the Worcester Board of Trade, is another business organ which publishes a few articles on municipal government. Of the same sort are *Western New England*, published monthly by the Springfield board of trade; the *Board of Trade Journal*, Portland, Maine; and *The Detroiter* published monthly under the direction of the publicity committee of the Detroit Board of Commerce. It seems to be the rule that the larger the city the more attention is paid by the chamber of commerce journal to civic affairs. In Boston the weekly *Chamber of Commerce News* discusses local municipal problems, such as taxation, harbor facilities, fire prevention, public utilities, transportation problems and city planning. *Chicago Commerce*, published weekly by the Chicago Association of Commerce, also discusses problems of this class and has a "foreign municipal service" which ought to be very useful in furnishing data regarding European cities in a popular form. In New York the *Monthly Bulletin of the Chamber of Commerce of the State of New York* concerns itself only incidentally with municipal affairs, as in the matter of port facilities for the city. *Greater New York*, the Bulletin of the Merchants' Association of New York, began publication March 4th, 1912. It aims to inform members of what the Association is doing and to call attention to matters of importance to the trade and welfare of New York.

7. Problems of municipal engineering and public utilities are touched upon to some extent in each of the classes of periodical publications already mentioned, but they are dealt with more fully in a group that may best be considered as forming a separate class. *Municipal Engineering* (Indianapolis, Indiana) is valuable for its articles on concrete construction, paving,

sewerage, waterworks, street lighting, parks, garbage disposal, bridges, etc. *Fire and Water Engineering* discusses the engineering aspects of water supply and fire prevention. *The Illuminating Engineer the Magazine of Good Lighting* (New York) contains much information in regard to the lighting of streets and public buildings. Occasionally articles of value on such subjects as sewage disposal and paving appear in the *Engineering News* (New York). Probably the most valuable publication in this class is the *Municipal Journal and Engineer*. Editorially it says of itself: "We try to keep this the standard periodical for officials of cities and waterworks and other corporations conducting public utilities; also for contractors engaged in constructing such work. We publish practical information of all kinds which will be useful to all of these in their official or business capacities, the news of municipal doings and nothing else." One of the most valuable features of the *Municipal Journal and Engineer* is a monthly "municipal index" in which are listed and classified all articles treating of municipal topics appearing in the leading periodicals. On the problems of paving *Good Roads* (New York), "a weekly journal of road and street engineering and contracting" is of considerable interest. *The Electric Railway Journal* and various electrical and gas lighting reviews of purely technological nature treat fully the engineering side of public utilities. The public service corporation's side of controverted questions of public ownership and regulation is set forth in *Public Utilities* (Chicago).

8. In an eighth and final group reference should be made to publications devoted more or less exclusively to one or another of the pressing social problems. The most important of these is undoubtedly *The Survey* (New York) which approaches municipal affairs from the point of view of constructive philanthropy. In all matters of public and private philanthropy, housing, immigration, etc., *The Survey* is an indispensable guide. *Vigilance* (New York), published monthly by the American Purity Alliance and the National Vigilance Committee, serves as a clearinghouse of information in regard to what cities are doing in regulating and checking the "social evil."

CHARLES C. WILLIAMSON, PH.D.[1]

THE MUNICIPAL MARKET SITUATION

UNDER modern commercial conditions, with the development of several grades of middlemen, the law of supply and demand, so far as the consumer is concerned, has become more or less a dead letter. The consumer in our large cities finds that large crops of fruit and vegetables mean little or nothing to him. He used to read with much satisfaction that there was to be a large apple crop, that the peaches were to be plentiful and that potatoes were to be had in abundance, for he knew that these staples would be reasonable. Now, news of this kind is received with derision.

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[1] Chief of the division of economics and sociology, New York Public Library

Samuel Lewis Shank, mayor of Indianapolis, who has gained fame by his personally conducted cut-price sales of potatoes, poultry and other articles, in the public market of his city, has said that the only solution of the high-cost-of-living problem, was by bringing the producer and the consumer together. He has satisfied himself and the people of Indianapolis, that his "municipal purchase and sales agent" idea is effective in reducing the artificially inflated prices of foodstuffs.

There can be no doubt in the minds of those of us who have given municipal affairs any serious and studied consideration but that our cities have been allowed to grow up, with no thought of the future. It is said that our non-interference policy, with respect to the food supply, has resulted in the so-called high cost of living. Others maintain that there has been a corresponding increase in the cost of living in most countries of the civilized world and that we cannot hope to find a solution of this problem by any special municipal policy.

Municipal markets are not new in this country. Fifty years ago every city and a good many towns had a public market place. St. Louis[1] once had three or four great markets. Chicago has today three squares upon which market houses once stood. A generation ago every small town in the south and southwest had a central market place. Most of these communities have outgrown these centers. The privately owned market, grocery and butcher shop have supplanted them. This is true, in a measure, of Great Britain and Ireland as it is of the United States. Yet, in some cities, at home and abroad, great and small public markets still exist and prosper.

Municipalities throughout the country have the right, by law, to establish markets, control and supervise the sales within them. A few of our cities have taken up the movement for the establishment of modern markets or market centers, but, till now, the interest has been unenthusiastic on the part of the city's officials. Charlestown, New York, Washington, D. C., and other large cities including Boston, Baltimore, New Orleans, Rochester and Indianapolis, have partially established a market system or have maintained the markets that were handed down from the former generation. Yet in all of these cities the activity has not been commensurate with the local needs. Municipal markets, as established in the United States, are, generally speaking, in their first stages of development. No American city has deliberately framed a comprehensive plan, much less carried one into effect, for developing public markets along the most approved modern lines, to meet the growing needs of an enlarged territory and an ever increasing population. Such public markets as still exist in the larger cities of the east fall short of market administrative qualities characteristic of many European cities, particularly upon the continent.[2]

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[1] Vid. *Municipal Journal and Engineer*, April 27, 1910, for article on St. Louis.

Nowhere in the United States is there a municipal market governed and controlled exactly as are those of Europe. Prices are not regulated by a standard of value; a great deal of marketing is wholesale, especially in the east, the farmers and truck gardeners being anxious to dispose of their products; and the personal element in buying has been supplanted by the telephone. Shopping at Faneuil Hall, Boston, hardly pays nowadays unless one has a large family or buys for a boarding house. The utter lack of a statistical valuation of the commodities, and the establishment of a standard price upon which all business must be transacted, is partly responsible for the lack of any real benefit to the city.[3]

Baltimore is the center of the "eatables," due in large measure to the geographic position of the city. Its markets are opened on different days of the week. The fact that there are eleven markets where one may trade, and find the same things, has caused the housewives and shoppers, in general, to trade at one market. This is done, likewise, because many marketmen rent stalls in different markets. These marketmen buy direct from the producer without the intervention of the middleman. Should a producer, coming to Baltimore, desire to sell his products himself, he would find it necessary to line up his wagon along the street. In Baltimore the idea of a market has spread, not because of any active regulation on the part of the city, but because the location of the city made a market a comparatively simple success. The system seems to be rather loose and about all that is asked on the part of the city administration is the price of the stalls. The prices asked for the products, as far as the city is concerned, is of no importance.

Baltimore[4] is forging to the fore in the market situation, nevertheless. Her citizens buy eagerly and come regularly for their products. In the near future, Baltimore will attempt to establish regulations along constructive lines. The eleven markets give the city 2 per cent on the investment. Because of the fact that the people of Baltimore are accustomed to buy their product at these markets, there would be strong opposition if an attempt were made to abandon them. The Lexington market, in Baltimore, is the largest and finest in the United States, covering four blocks lengthwise.

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[2] Mass. House Doc. No. 1750, report commission on cost of living, 1910, pp. 566 seq.

[3] J. N. Pardee, With a Boston Marketman, *New England Magazine*, 27 :450–63.

[4] Arch., 50 :33 S. '07.

Chicago has no market building, simply a market place. Retail buying is practically unknown in the street. And yet Chicago is the closest market in the country. One can buy almost all products of the soil for less money here than elsewhere in America. On account of its railway facilities the city is the fruit market for the world. Everything sells in Chicago. Things are bought unseen by the commission men and things must be sold.

New Orleans is, perhaps, the best example of city leased markets where the revenue derived is about $185,000 annually. The city likewise operates four markets of its own which yield a revenue of $10,000 a year. In this instance, the city possesses a monopoly and the few private enterprises that exist are under the right of reversion to the city.

In spite of the conditions which appear to exist in the larger American cities where municipal markets have been established, good financial returns have resulted. Boston nets a profit of $60,000 a year; Baltimore about $50,000; New Orleans something like $75,000. Of the 158 cities in the United States having 30,000 inhabitants according to the last special report of the Census Bureau, 54 made returns of market receipts and expenditures for the year 1907. In 25 cities, having receipts amounting to $10,000 and over, the total receipts from markets and public sales aggregated $1,252,405, or $865,237 more than the expense of maintenance. These facts indicate a danger which must be avoided and that is the renting of stalls at a profit and then surrounding the market places with rigid regulations. Such action might counteract the good results that should come from an open market.

Municipalities have, in nearly every instance, the right to establish municipal markets, and yet, in cities of 100,000 inhabitants and over, more than half have no municipal market buildings under city supervision. In all cities from 25,000 to 100,000 inhabitants, hardly one-third have municipal markets and in nearly every instance this qualification means the possession of market halls or centers where stalls are rented to the farmers and gardeners.

It is quite evident that our markets are organized on the style of the forestaller—a plan that has for its ultimate object the building up of a large private business. These private interests are necessarily built up through the tax which the consumer must pay. While it is true that the cost of living in Baltimore is lower than in any other eastern city, this is not due to the fact that markets are fairly well established, but, on the other hand, to the geographic position of the city. If the present markets in our cities are to survive and be of lasting benefit to the communities in which they are located, it is absolutely necessary that there be a systematic organization under municipal control. In a number of towns and cities where markets are in operation only a few truck farmers appear, offering their goods for sale. Madison, Wisconsin, built a municipal market two years ago at a cost of $55,000 and on account of the lack of interest taken in the project, by the city officials and members of the council, the market and the market center is not fulfilling its purpose.

Dr. Madison C. Peters, New York City, opened his war on the middleman January 27, 1912, with volleys of carrots, potatoes, onions, beets and other vegetable ammunition. Within five minutes after his store began business, it is reported, fifty women and boys with baskets were on hand and in two hours his stock was bought out. Thus was the inspiration of Mayor Shank of Indianapolis transferred to New York.

"It has gone so well," said Louis Steinfeld, financial backer of the scheme, "that we shall open four more stores." Dr. Peters' prices are given below:

Potatoes	10 lb., 25c.	4c. lb.
Carrots	1 lb., 2¼c.	4c. lb.
Cabbage	1 lb., 2c.	5c. lb.
Apples	2 lb., 5c. (7 ap)	5c. for 2
Turnips	1 lb., 2¼c.	4c. lb.
Beets	1 lb., 2¼c.	4c. lb.
Parsnips	1 lb., 2¼c.	4c. lb.
Onions	1 lb., 4c.	6c. lb.

In a letter dated November 21, 1911, Henry B. Gniffke, of Dubuque, Iowa, says in part.

> The greatest thing to happen to us was the discovery by a Des Moines newspaper, that the cost of living in Dubuque was very much less than in any city near its size in the middle west, and the cause for this state of affairs, while scarcely a matter of government, comes so close to the life of the municipality that I will briefly outline this discovery.
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> The Des Moines *Register and Leader* sent out a list of some thirty articles of staple foods, and requested the price be sent from some thirty cities of the middle west of about the same population. On potatoes, for example, at least 70 per cent lower than Des Moines. The list was sent back for verification. It was correct. Then the mayor of Des Moines sent his secretary here to investigate, then the mayor himself came. Since then we have had delegations from all around us, sent here by the city governments, to learn how we solved the high cost of living. We were not aware of it until others discovered it for us. We have always boasted of the largest city market in the United States. In season hundreds of gardeners and farmers from the country around in Iowa, Wisconsin and Illinois, occasionally coming twenty-five miles, back up to the curbstone in the neighborhood of the city hall, lining many blocks, and sell their vegetables, garden truck, flowers, butter, eggs, preserves, fruit, poultry, etc., direct to the consumer, who visits the market by the thousands between the hours of seven in the morning and noon. This institution, where producer and consumer deal without the intervention of the middleman, was not really appreciated here until others discovered its real value for us. It took root here over seventy years ago, grew and prospered, but it was only this summer (1911) that we discovered that the high cost of living was solved here.

"The Dubuque market," says H. H. Bliss, "has been a fixture here for many years. City ordinances have fixed the position of the grocer so that he can do nothing to regulate prices or interfere with the farmer in any way. He is even forced to allow the public to take first pick at the market. And yet, grocers are doing a good business in Dubuque. Fairness has injured no one. The increased trade has more than made up for the reduction in price."

In September, 1911, one dollar would buy the following in Dubuque:

One peck potatoes	$0.15
One dozen ears of sweet corn	.10
One-half dozen cucumbers	.05
Quart of beans	.05
Head of lettuce	.05
One dozen eggs	.17
Four pounds Concord grapes	.06
One-half dozen carrots	.07
One head of cabbage	.05
One-fourth dozen canteloupes	.05
One peck of apples	.10
One egg plant	.10
Total	$1.00

At the recently established market place in Des Moines, between 100 and 200 farmers gather on the city hall lawn and in the streets adjacent thereto between the hours of 5 o'clock and 10 o'clock in the morning, without paying any license or rent. They are permitted to sell direct from their wagons to the city consumer. The result has been that they received approximately 50 per cent more for their produce than the commission men paid them before, while the city buyers get their produce for approximately 50 per cent less than was paid formerly. By compelling the sellers to display large cards stating whether they are gardeners or hucksters, the public is enabled to discriminate and to purchase direct from the man who grows.[5]

A municipal store, bonded by the city government or perhaps by the state of Oklahoma, in case it develops that the municipality has not the power, is a plan now said to be on foot for reducing the cost of living in Oklahoma City. An initiative petition with that end in view is now being prepared, it is said, and will be circulated for signatures soon. It is claimed that Oklahoma is the only state in the union where such a store can be operated under the constitution, the organic law of the state providing that the state may enter into any business with the sole exception of agriculture. The parties at the head of the movement claim that the city derives this power from the constitution as a part of the state government, there being nothing in the charter prohibiting it.[6]

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[5] *Iowa Homestead*, October 5, 1911; *Woman's Home Companion*, February, 1912.

[6] *Municipal Journal and Engineer*, v. 31, December 7, 1911. Note. (P. 31.)

With a view to solving the cost-of-living problem, Mrs. Julian Heath of New York has organized the Housewives' League. The object of this organization is to bring the farmers and the city housekeepers closer together, and by attempting to abolish the middleman, to obtain better prices for the farmers and to reduce the household expenses of the city housekeeper. About one hundred thousand women are enrolled, and branches are being formed in all parts of the country. It was probably the Housewives' League that brought down the price of butter last February when fifty and sixty cents a pound was being asked for that commodity. A boycott was started in New York; Pittsburg took it up; Toledo followed suit.

The New York City Club has had a committee investigating the food markets of New York for some time and a portion of that committee's report has recently appeared in one of the city club's bulletins. It is recommended that a Market Department with a Commissioner at its head should be established where alleged unjust monopoly could be investigated and prosecuted, unjust discrimination on the part of common carriers prevented, unjust competition corrected, uneconomic handling of food supplies be minimized, and quality, grade and price of food stuffs be constantly supervised. At an early date the club will issue a printed pamphlet embodying findings of the Club's Committee together with a noteworthy article by Hon. Cyrus C. Miller, President of Borough of the Bronx, upon city markets in this and other countries.

Two hundred representative citizens of Lynn, Massachusetts, gathered in the council chamber recently at a so-called high cost of living hearing to discuss ways and means of reducing the food bill of the average citizen. The question of the establishment of a municipal market where groceries and provisions could be purchased direct from the producers without the middleman's charges, was discussed. Legal lights agreed that such an act would be unconstitutional, the supreme court of Massachusetts having so decided in 1902, when the question of the establishment of municipal coal yards was agitated. Mayor William P. Connery therefore suggested that the citizens urge their representatives in the legislature to take action looking toward the resubmission of the question to the supreme court, the personnel of which has materially changed since 1902.

In an effort to reduce the high cost of living a city market is to be established in Aurora, Illinois, the council decided to open a mart on a centrally located downtown site on March 1. With its establishment peddling by farmers or hawkers within the city limits will be forbidden. The success of the Joliet market influenced the aldermen in this action. Before Thanksgiving Day dressed turkeys were selling on the Joliet city market for 18 cents per pound, while in Aurora, the price was 25 cents.

Hundreds of farmers, members of grangers, farmers elevator companies and shipping associations, in Minnesota, were represented at the first annual farmers coöperative marketing convention of the northwest, held at St. Paul, March 6, 7 and 8.

It is evident from the recent steps[7] which have been taken to decrease the cost of living that there are going to be a good many markets or market centers established in the United States in the near future, in an endeavor to equalize prices. It has been satisfactorily shown that in some instances prices charged the ultimate consumer were out of proportion to the prices received by the original producer. There is still some doubt in the minds of many that the retailer is the blamable factor in the high cost of living situation. More systematic plans in inaugurating municipal markets in our urban communities must determine whether markets and market centers will solve the situation.

In municipal regulation of markets, the cities must enter the field with caution and knowledge. The ownership of the market halls, the installation of proper officials, the preservation of sanitary conditions, the bringing of the producer and the consumer together, and the assurance to both the producer and the consumer that they have a right to a place in the market should be among the first considerations. Systematic organization is, without doubt, of first importance. The municipal market seems to be a necessity, from the standpoint of economics and society. If no effort is made to furnish the people with the necessities of life at a reasonable price, we may only hasten a corner in the food market.

DON E. MOWRY.

Madison, Wisconsin.

BOARD OF PUBLIC WELFARE OF KANSAS CITY, MISSOURI

THE board was created by ordinances. It consists of five members, serving for three years each, appointed by the mayor, but the successors to retiring members must be nominated by the remaining members of the board, which arrangement makes the board practically self-perpetuating. This provision was incorporated to keep the board as free from partisan political pressure as possible. The board voluntarily established the precedent of asking the Federated Charities of the city to nominate members to fill vacancies. All employees of the board are chosen by civil service competitive examinations.

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[7] *Ibid.* October 23, 1907; April 1, 1908; April 27, 1910; May 25, 1910; June 8, 1910; June 29, 1910; July 20. 1910; March 22, 1911; August 16, 1911.

This board is unique in the fact that it includes in one system and under one board various activities that are generally operated independently in other cities. It operates the municipal farm and the women's reformatory, which are for men and women misdemeanants respectively, and conducts a parole system which is applicable to both. Thus it covers the correctional institutions.

It is charged with the duty of investigating all private charities that solicit money from the public and issues a list of endorsed charities worthy of public support. It maintains a registration bureau for the exchange of information on cases between all the private charities and furnishes investigators to gather information on all applicants for help at any of the charities and make and execute constructive plans for putting them on their feet. Thus it fulfills the functions usually assigned to the associated charities.

The board conducts housing investigations and causes evils to be remedied. In other words, it carries on the functions of a tenement commission. It maintains as a regular municipal activity a free legal aid bureau such as is conducted by private societies in numerous other cities.

The dance halls of the city are under the supervision of its recreation department and an inspector attends each one. An ordinance is pending placing the censorship of motion picture films under the same department. The department has conducted an investigation and will make a report on all forms of commercial recreation.

Factory inspection, a bureau of labor statistics reporting on working conditions and an employment bureau are the activities of the board for improving working conditions. In the winter months a public rock quarry has been maintained to give work to the surplus of unemployed men. The place usually occupied by the municipal lodging house is filled by buying board and lodging at a private institution called The Helping Hand Institute for those temporarily destitute and unable to work.

The board acts as trustee for the Welfare Loan Agency, a philanthropic enterprise whose field is suggested by its name.

District superintendents are placed in all the poorer sections of the city and instructed to study the district thoroughly and utilize all the available machinery, not only of the board but of society in general, to improve the environment of the people.

The policy of the board is briefly summarized in its annual report as follows:

1. It lays emphasis on justice before charity and on prevention rather than cure.

2. It agrees that the burden of caring for the poor should be laid upon the entire community through taxation rather than be provided for by the voluntary gifts of the generous minority.

3. It believes that social action should be based on accurate knowledge and investigations should both precede and accompany all efforts to improve social conditions.

4. It strives for harmonious coöperation with all existing agencies, both public and private, and does not duplicate the work of any.

5. The board gives no public outdoor relief except in cases where the bread winner of the family is a city prisoner, and then only on the basis of actual destitution, and upon the recommendation of the superintendent of the Provident Association.

6. It gives no subsidies to private charities.

The total expense of the board during its first year's operations, which closed April 18, 1911, was $145,155.38. It may be worth while to briefly enumerate what practical results have been achieved through this outlay.

The research bureau has, through its endorsement scheme, protected the public from solicitors for unworthy charities. Nobody knows how much has been saved in this way, but if the unendorsed charities themselves are to be believed, their operations have been greatly curtailed. Several have ceased to operate.

We know from actually following up our cases that $13,000 worth of improvements have been made on houses on which our housing investigators made complaints. These are direct benefits to the poor.

We have no way of estimating yet the benefits of the other investigations in this department but believe them to be very much worth while. The actual benefits of the department surely run up to three times the cost which was $5896.

The department for the homeless and the unemployed prevents a great deal of loss through unemployment. The total amount of $11,796.05 spent in employing men at the municipal quarry was all money that would have actually been needed in the form of relief, but this quarry enabled us to save all but $1907.47 of this money—a saving of $9888.58. The employment bureau secured many temporary jobs where the amount of money earned was reported back by the men. The amount thus reported was $12,115.57. Even if those who did not report because they stayed at permanent jobs, and all the others not reporting earned at just the same rate as those reporting, the total for all would amount to $15,117.07. The amount spent in temporarily housing and feeding the 4,924 different homeless people who could not possibly pay was $4900.20. Who will say that the city did not make a good investment in paying 45 cents per day for the board and lodging of these people?

The social service department has been setting families to rights so that they could support themselves and has kept some from giving up the fight. The benefits are the best charity money can buy.

The welfare loan agency has loaned $24,022.07 at about 2 per cent per month in competition with the loan sharks who loan at 10 per cent per month. Figuring the difference in rates on the loans actually in force from December 1, 1910, to April 18, 1911, the period falling within our fiscal year, the saving to the citizens was $4472.27. This is an activity promoted by the board without a cent of cost to the city.

The legal aid bureau has collected for poor litigants $6046.40, most of which would have been absolutely lost if it had not been for the timely aid of this bureau.

The gains secured through our recreation department by shielding the youth from evil influences in connection with dance halls are moral and cannot be computed in money. It was well worth while to warn the mothers of 250 young girls, sixteen years of age or under who were found at public dances with no responsible escorts. This is one of several benefits of the department.

The following items in regard to the parole department are significant: The board has disbursed upon needy families where the bread winner was in prison, $1029. The parole department has collected from delinquent husbands in non-support cases during the past fiscal year, $8,346.21 and turned over the same to the neglected wives. Our paroled men have actually earned $166,832 during the time they would have been in the workhouse if it had not been for their parole. The prisoners made improvements at the Farm worth $6186.24 more than the maintenance of the institution cost.

L. A. Halbert.[1]

THE MILWAUKEE BUREAU OF ECONOMY AND EFFICIENCY

THE establishment of the Milwaukee Bureau of Economy and Efficiency late in 1910 marked the advent of a new era in municipal efficiency work, for this bureau was instituted by resolution of the common council, financed by public funds, and from its inception was an integral part of the city government. It was the beginning of general municipal efficiency work undertaken by the municipality itself.

The advantages of this plan of organization over that of bureaus privately financed are immediately apparent: coöperation on the part of department heads and employees; free access to all records and accounts; accurate knowledge of business and operating methods; and an assurance that the recommendations of the bureau will be given careful consideration.

Organization within the city goverment, however, is not without its disadvantages: the recommendations of the bureau might be regarded as made from partisan motives rather than based on thorough efficiency investigations; and every change of administration endangers the continuance of the work.

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[1] General superintendent of the board of public welfare of Kansas City.

Its relation to the city government gave the bureau a distinctive method of procedure. Instead of being satisfied with merely discovering weakness and inefficiency in city methods, this bureau used the information obtained in its investigations as the basis on which to construct plans of reorganization to the end that these defects may be overcome. The scope of the work of the Milwaukee bureau was perhaps broader than that of any other similar organization. It included both an efficiency and a social survey. The city exists for its citizens, and year by year the scope of its activities broadens to embrace new fields of social service. In its social survey the bureau aimed to discover to what extent, for example, housing laws were enforced. The efficiency survey, in its study of the department concerned, had before it the findings of the social investigation, and determined why the housing laws were not enforced and how they could be enforced. The work in the two fields of activity of the bureau results not only in bringing to a high standard of efficiency the daily routine of departments, but in developing all of the activities that properly appertain to them.

In its survey of the efficiency of operation, studies were made of the organization, operation, accounting, finance and business methods of the several departments of the city government. These efficiency studies followed the same general lines of procedure as are followed in efficiency work for industrial corporations.

The effecting of ideal reorganizations in a municipality, however, is seriously handicapped by budget restrictions. It was the aim of the bureau, therefore, to reorganize each department or activity so that the highest degree of efficiency might be attained with the expenditure of the funds available, and to secure economy in operation by eliminating waste, preventing duplication of effort, and establishing high standards of individual efficiency. Further, its knowledge of the activities of all city departments enabled the bureau to suggest plans for properly coördinating and correlating them, pointing out opportunities for increased service, and indicating points of overlapping.

The Milwaukee bureau was under the direction of Prof. John R. Commons, with Dr. B. M. Rastall and Mr. Leslie S. Everts as associates. There was a small permanent staff which was augmented as occasion demanded by special investigators.

A very distinctive feature in the organization of the bureau was the staff of consulting experts. This staff was made up of a group of the country's foremost experts in organization, engineering, accounting, health and sanitation, finance and taxation, and social work. One or more of these experts reviewed critically every piece of work before it left the office for submission to the department. The value of such expert criticism cannot be overestimated.

From the very outset of the work the bureau had the advantage of thorough coöperation of allied civic and state organizations, such as the state board of public affairs, industrial commission, tax commission, and the University Settlement, and at various times such organizations as the Merchants' and Manufacturers' Association, Milwaukee Society of Engineers, the City Club of Milwaukee, and the Advertisers Club offered their coöperation and assistance.

Without this coöperation the bureau would have found it very difficult, if not impossible, to effect some of its studies and reorganizations. Among these were the water works reorganization, in which study the railroad commission gave active assistance and finally ordered the installation of the system; the tax study, for which the tax commission loaned some of its men, and the studies of housing conditions, milk supply, newsboys, garnishment of wages, unemployment, and free legal aid, in which the industrial commission and private organizations coöperated by loaning some of their employees and printing some of the reports.

The basis for all reorganization work in the individual departments was the preliminary survey of the legal provisions, organization, operation, and accounting procedure of the entire city. This survey was conducted at the beginning of the work and was practically completed before any of the reorganization studies were begun.

This survey gave the directors a comprehensive view of the problems to be attacked and enabled them to plan the work of the bureau so as to obtain the maximum results in the time covered by the appropriation.

The situation as shown by the preliminary survey was about as follows. The deputy comptroller (with whom coöperation was immediately established) had begun work on a scientific budget, and on a proper method of control to be exercised by him over the accounts of the various departments. Offset against this undoubted advantage was the fact that all of the work to be undertaken by the bureau was pioneer in nature. There were no well trodden paths to follow.

Based on the preliminary survey, however, a general scheme of reorganization was formulated by the directors. Later, as the work developed in the two departments in which reorganization work was attempted, namely the public works and health departments, standard practices in procedure, costs, and accounting were determined upon, so that the departmental accounts might be connected up with the controlling accounts of the city comptroller, and so that there would be no ragged edges in the finished pieces of work.

The most comprehensive study undertaken and completed by the bureau was the reorganization of the water department, which, with the exception of a few points necessitating legislation, went into operation January 1, 1912, upon the order of the Railroad Commission of Wisconsin.

The problems of this department as brought out by a detailed study of operation, were approached from every possible angle. Organization, accounting and business procedure, water losses, electrolysis, the efficiency of plant operation and the adequacy of the system were the subjects of special investigations.

A water wastes survey was made during the summer of 1911 to determine the losses in the water distribution system and the methods to be followed in eliminating them. By the use of pitometers, tests were made on the pumps in each pumping station and the slip for each pump determined. Several of the pumps were operating within the limit of accuracy of the pitometer, but in others the percentage of slip was found to be very high. Sections of the distribution system were surveyed for water losses with the result that several large leaks were discovered. Calculations were made showing that 23 per cent of the total water consumption is lost by underground waste, misuse, or illegal use. Several recommendations were made for the elimination of this waste, which, it is believed, can be accomplished at a far greater annual saving to the city than the costs involved.

An electrolysis survey was made to discover to what extent return currents from the rails of electric railway companies are damaging the underground iron and steel structural work in the city. Recommendations made for minimizing this evil are under consideration.

Two efficiency studies were conducted, one to determine the present operating efficiency of the water works plant, including intakes, pumping stations, reservoir, and distribution system, and to make recommendations to be carried out in the immediate future; and the other to determine the adequacy of the present plant and to make plans for the future growth of the system to care for the needs of the city twenty years hence.

An entire revision of the water department as to organization, business practice, accounts and records, to embrace all of the recommendations set forth in the detailed study and the special surveys was completed. A modern and comprehensive accounting system with a complete schedule of accounts and a full set of forms was designed and the procedure indicated for all the divisions of the department.

The studies of the bureau in the health department embraced all of its activities. The preliminary survey brought out the necessity of much detailed investigation and reorganization in order to place that department on a high standard of efficiency. Reports with constructive recommendations were made upon the following: division of education and publications; sanitary inspection; communicable diseases; meat and food inspection; milk supply; records and statistics; the health laboratory. and general reorganization.

In cöoperation with the chief of the bureau of education and publications, the bureau of economy and efficiency laid out a plan of work for this newly organized activity of the health department, pointing out the opportunities that exist in Milwaukee for the direct education of the public in health matters; showing where the health department can secure cöoperation both in its campaign for education and its direct health work; and indicating the means for accomplishing these results.

The plans for the reorganization of the division of sanitary inspection include the transfer of outdoor nuisance inspection to the police department and the concentration of effort on pure health work.

A serious obstacle to efficiency was discovered when the bureau pointed out instances, notably in the inspection of milk, in which the importance of some minor phases of the work was being over-emphasized to the detriment of the work as a whole. The greatest hindrance to efficient work in the health department lay in its faulty organization. There was no definite location of responsibility among employees and related activities were scattered throughout the organization. In its reorganization plans the bureau endeavored to overcome this defect. It proposed to concentrate in one division under the direction of an expert epidemiologist, all efforts to check the spread of communicable diseases and to group all classes of food inspection under a chief inspector. In addition to indicating what it believes to be the proper functions of the health department and planning the organization necessary to perform its various activities, the bureau designed the necessary systems for a complete record of the work performed.

Among other organization studies completed by the bureau were those concerning the refuse incinerator, street cleaning and sanitation, collection of garbage and ashes, special assessments, ward labor efficiency, consolidation of house drain and plumbing inspection, public structures, bureau of sewers, board of examiners of stationary engineers, consolidation of fire and police alarm telegraph systems, and the municipal reference library. The social studies included free legal aid, free employment bureaus, garnishment of wages, women's wages, housing conditions, and street trades.

In the study of the conditions which the city government must meet, the bureau has frequently pointed out problems which it felt could best be solved through the united efforts of interested citizens. To this end it recommended the creation of commissions, composed of representative citizens without regard to political affiliations, to study special problems, and by making actual tests in operation, to devise means of solving them. Following these suggestions, a housing commission, a market commission, a tuberculosis commission, a child welfare commission, and a special milk committee of the latter commission, were appointed. A recreational survey was also made preliminary to adopting a comprehensive plan for the development of recreational facilities. The bureau assisted these commissions in laying out their plans and coöperated with them at every stage of the development of their work. It never was the idea of the bureau that these special commissions should be a permanent feature of city government. They were established to discover the solution of certain definite problems; as soon as satisfactory solutions are reached, and the work of the commissions becomes routine operation, they should be discontinued and the work transferred to the proper department of the municipal government.

Many times it was found possible to make consolidations and reorganizations effecting an immediate money saving, and at other times future savings were made possible through capital expenditure, but such savings were considered as a by-product to efficiency. In some instances, notably in the reorganization planned for the health department, the bureau did not hesitate to recommend increased expenditure to secure the desired efficiency.

Although the bureau was organized as a part of the city government, it was not connected with any of the municipal departments nor did it constitute a department by itself. Its work was rather in the nature of a special investigation under the direction of the finance committee of the common council. This form of organization was not intended to be permanent. With the change of administration in Milwaukee in April the bureau as formerly constituted ceased to exist. The mayor and council are now investigating the feasibility of continuing the work of the bureau under some form of permanent organization established by ordinance.

In its eighteen months of work the temporary bureau pointed out means by which the administrative machinery could be operated to conduct the functions of government more efficiently, it showed how the records of municipal transactions could be made intelligible and enlightening, and it was the inspiration for increased social service. If efficiency work is placed on a permanent basis, the municipality should receive these benefits in increasing measure each year.

John E. Treleven and P. H. Myers.[1]

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[1] Mr. Treleven was secretary of the Milwaukee bureau of economy and efficiency and Mr. Myers was the accountant.

REFORMS WHICH ARE STILL ABIDING

THE reform movement in Portland, Oregon, commenced in a small way about twenty-five years ago. It has in common with similar movements in the United States progressed ever since, with such accumulated momentum, carrying along such a whirlwind of dust and chaff, that sometimes its friends have become a little bewildered and have wondered whether or not the remedies were not almost as bad as the disease. Let us take stock of it.

In the first place we cannot separate municipal reform movements from county, state and national reforms or estimate their effects apart from each other, hence we will drop the word municipal and consider only such reforms as abide which affect the city's life.

The *first* great step in Oregon was the Australian or secret ballot, and this with the registration of voters which came along about the same time were sufficient in themselves to revolutionize the city's life, and they abide unquestioned and afford an absolutely decent, orderly and self-respecting method of determining the city's will. Through them the public recovered its voice and freedom of choice, and this in itself is so great a thing that we are compelled occasionally to recount the old conditions to remind ourselves what a change has been wrought by these first steps alone.

Twenty-five years ago in Portland the voting booths were a scandal and disgrace. The parties furnished their own ballots and marched their bought voters to the polls and saw them vote the paper given them; burly ruffians acted as challengers and maltreated voters of the opposite factions. In one case one of these sat a short distance away from the polls with his shot-gun over his knees defying the officers, and they had no intention of touching him, for he was of *their* faction. The police force was only a political club to hammer voters into line for particular factions or men and the city was kept in an uproar by the efforts of such men and factions to get control of the force. This disgraceful struggle was periodically transferred to the state legislature, and "pocket city charters" were formulated and passed for this purpose alone without the citizens ever seeing them. The control of the police meant the control of at least 3000 voters, 20 per cent of the then city vote, and to keep the police in line they were allowed to make merchandise of the laws and blackmail the helpless and the weak. Crime and vice were openly commercialized and promoted and he was the best man politically who utilized these vile agencies most effectively. Worst of all it was publicly recognized as the only way to play the game and the participants had no comprehension what a vile way it was; in fact they thought they were patriots. On one occasion small pictures of General U. S. Grant were utilized as tokens identifying bribed voters who had made good delivery and were cashed at $2.50 each at a booth just around the corner. Nor was the city of Portland alone in this. New York, Philadelphia, Boston and Chicago could in one form or another and on a scale of much greater magnitude match this description.

The Portland politicians of that day had good reason to

Weep that they bin
Too small to sin,
To the lights of their desire.

In all Oregon such a thing now as a bribed voter is unknown. It is an extinct species. Violence at the polls has been done away with, and voting is decent, reasonable and orderly. For good or for evil what is recorded is the will of the people.

Twenty-five years ago it was bad form and spelled ruin to vote outside of party lines and the city was used as a football of the partisan game, kicked hither and thither at the will of corrupt politicians, and incidentally governed by the state legislature. Now the city is a free city and political partisanship in city affairs is an unknown quantity. In fact the campaign against party ties has in state and national affairs gone so far and been so successful that responsible party management has practically been done away with. Whether for good or for evil remains yet to be demonstrated. But in any event the city is free and that is a great gain in itself. Whether the direct primary in state and national elections must be modified or controlled is another question that can be settled in due time after proper experiments has been made of it.

Greatest of all reforms, however, growing as it has almost entirely out of the arrest of public attention by the struggle for specific reforms, is the new civic consciousness that has been created and is now assuming full power. Never in our history has civic and political consciousness been more in evidence, or the civic or political conscience of the mass so much in control of municipal affairs as now. Dozens of clubs and leagues and improvement societies bear witness to the community spirit that is being developed, and if perchance this community spirit is a little too critical and a little too much interested in the purely materialistic development of the city and has its eye a little too much concentrated on the real estate market and incidentally "boosts" and brags too much, it must be forgiven it, for these are the natural defects of a young and vigorous youth which having accomplished great things looks confidently and a little boastfully forward to accomplishing still greater things and especially likes to have the world take note of its doings. It is a defect of taste and not of intention.

In response to this critical attitude of the public and this awakened public consciousness the performance of their duties by the civic officers has greatly improved. The auditor's and city engineer's offices are much more efficient and effective than they were twenty years ago. Some of this increased effectiveness is due to the natural growth of the city's business and its natural standardization, but more of it is due to the response of the officers to the persistent and more enlightened demand of the public.

The whole city has been paved with hard surface pavements within the last few years, and the work has been comparatively well and economically done.

Magnificent new bridges, sewerage and water systems, municipal docks, and public structures of different descriptions are under way or finished and millions of dollars of public moneys are being spent and no suspicion of jobbery or connivance is entertained.

The franchise rights of the city and its rights and responsibilities in connection with its dealings with the public service corporations are carefully looked after and are jealously guarded by an active and awakened public interest.

It is a new city of Portland now as compared with the old city of twenty-five years ago, and its reformation has been exceptionally thorough and complete. If in the twenty-five years that are coming on one-tenth as much change for good is wrought comparatively as has been wrought in the last twenty-five years the best governed cities of Europe will have to look to their laurels, for the reformation spirit has come to Portland and is abiding.

Thomas N. Strong.[1]

THE PUEBLO LANDS OF SAN DIEGO

THE equable climate and splendid harbor of San Diego have won for this city world-wide renown, but few are familiar with the fact that in still another way this city stands uniquely apart from other cities of this country. This practically unknown resource is the possession of about 7000 acres of land within her limits.

When California became a state, all of the pueblo of San Diego, the bounds of which are within the present city limits, was deeded to the city by the federal government. This made San Diego the possessor of nearly all the lands within her limits. During the early days, when the idea of permanent municipal ownership was not given serious consideration, many acres were disposed of by sale and gift, until only the land now in its possession remained. This land is located ten miles north of the city proper and bordering the coast for about five miles. It lies on a high plateau immediately above the precipitous cliffs of the shore line. On the east the land stretches away to the foothills in a comparatively level mesa and on the sky line can be seen the mountains from Lower California to the Sierra Madras. The west presents an unbroken view of the Pacific for miles along the coast, where the passing vessels are constantly visible and on a clear day San Clemente and Catalina Islands can be plainly seen. The location is one of the most picturesque that can be found on the whole Pacific coast.

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[1] Mr. Strong was president of the Central Municipal League which was one of the pioneers in initiating the reforms to which he refers. For a number of years he was also one of the vice-presidents of the National Municipal League.

For years this land was used for grazing purposes by neighboring cattlemen and little thought was given to its value or future use. Not until 1908 was any definite action taken toward its development. At that time a clause was inserted in the new charter, through the farsightedness of some of the leading citizens, exempting all of the pueblo lands from sale until 1930 and providing a tax of 2 cents on every $100 of assessment value of city property for its improvement. The idea at the time was that this improvement should be largely along the line of the establishment of a municipal forest.

The proposition of creating a forest in Southern California, where there are no forests naturally, except upon the highest mountains, would seem to most people hardly feasible. The only thing which brings such an undertaking within the realms of possibility is that the eucalyptus tree of Australia is adapted to the soil and climatic conditions of this section even better than to the conditions of its native land. This tree has virtually changed the landscape of California. It is to be found from one end of the state to the other along the driveways and streets and in the parks. Only within the last few years, however, has the eucalyptus been recognized in this country for its timber value. The fact that the hardwood supply of our country was fast diminishing, brought to the attention of our people the fact that it would be necessary to plant forests to supply future demands. The rapidity of growth of the eucalyptus, its general usefulness and its adaptability to the conditions of California, made it apparent that the establishment of eucalyptus forests in California, which would become of commercial value in a comparatively short time, was an undertaking worthy of serious consideration by those interested in our future timber supply. The possibility of San Diego creating a municipal forest upon its pueblo lands, was recognized as an undertaking that would not only beautify this land, but prove to be a good investment from a commercial standpoint as well.

After the adoption of this amendment, no definite action was taken until November 1910, when a pueblo forester and assistant were appointed to begin the work of establishing the forest. During the first year 40,000 trees were set out and a permanent headquarters and nursery established for carrying on the future work. The land where the trees were planted was thoroughly prepared and the very best of subsequent care given. Many of these trees at the end of one year are 10 feet in height and at least 2 inches in diameter at the base. During the spring of 1912 100,000 additional trees were set out and the conditions give promise that these will make equally as good a growth. These trees are set 680 to an acre and at the end of the third year will be available for fence posts. At this time the groves will be materially thinned leaving about 200 trees to the acre to come to maturity as timber trees.

It was not until the actual development of this land was under way that the many possibilities of its development were realized. Hundreds of acres of the comparatively level mesa are ideally adapted for agricultural purposes and could be leased to material advantage as small farms for the raising of vegetables and small fruits. At present a few hundred acres are being used by the city for raising hay for the use of farm stock and that of the different departments, which has proven to be a great saving in this line. With the rapid growth of the city, this land, owing to its superb location, will soon be particularly desirable for suburban homes, and will no doubt be ultimately leased by the city for this purpose.

The possession of this land and the establishment of a municipal forest and farm offered a splendid opportunity for the city to solve some of its sociological problems by the establishment of an institution where a class of men, who through lack of employnent, were dependent upon the city, could be given assistance. During the last winter a camp was established upon the land for this purpose. A system by which each man was given ten days' work, with his board and bunk and fifty cents a day, was inaugurated, and the men worked in clearing land and planting trees. A few hundred of the unemployed of the city took advantage of this opportunity to gain assistance. Many who were arrested by the police for vagrancy and drunkenness were sent out by the court in lieu of a jail sentence and were helped in this way. This plan has proven to be a complete success and has been of great help to the men as well as a saving to the city. All the trees planted this year have been set out by these men. In nearly every case the men have been efficient workers and no trouble had been experienced in any manner.

It is doubtful if a better plan than the establishment of a municipal forest and farm could be adopted by any city. It is not only a good investment commercially, but is a saving to the taxpayer in taking care of an element who are a burden to the community, in such a way that they become self-supporting and are enabled to take their proper place in society. It is doubtful if San Diego will ever dispose of this land as the possibilities of its development along the most advanced ideas of municipal government are unlimited. San Diego expects, through this development, to put herself forward as one of the most progressive cities of the country.

MAX WATSON.[1]

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[1] Pueblo Forester, City of San Diego.

RECENT ACTIVITIES OF CITY CLUBS

THERE was a time when it was thought that the citizen's duty to his government ended at the polls, and eighteenth century statesmen resented the formation of political clubs as a meddlesome interference with the rights of governing persons. In our day, however, citizens, through their special associations for labor legislation, prison reform, purification of milk supply, and a hundred other public purposes, are threatening to take possession of large fields of legislation and administration by a process of "peaceful penetration." Private citizens are now doing work which was once regarded as the peculiar function of official persons; they are analysing questions of law-making and enforcement; they are drafting laws, watching administrative officers, employing experts to find out better ways of doing public business, and creating public sentiment on matters of policy. The line between public authorities and private interest is broken down.

In the sphere of municipal government, city clubs have for several years taken the lead as general non-partisan assocations. The older institutions, such as the City Club of New York, continue to thrive and justify their ways in affairs municipal. The St. Louis Club, now in its second year has found a place in that community under the secretaryship of Gustavus Tuckerman, and is growing steadily in the range of its activities and in membership. The Chicago club is just settling down to better work than ever in its new club house.[1] The Milwaukee club is in process of reorganization. It is being transformed from a dinner club into a real civic association. It has employed Charles A. Hanson, as civic secretary, and is at work increasing its membership to 1000 with a view to erecting a permanent home for the club. The proposals for the new club house are interesting: "We do not look forward," they say, "to luxurious quarters. We shall not abandon our democracy. But whatever we shall have will be worthy of the club and such that both men and women members will be proud of it. The only restriction anticipated between members is that bed rooms to be provided (at a profit to the club) will constitute a section of the building exclusively for men. . . . No bar to be installed, no liquors except soft-drinks, sold in the house." The roll of members contains appropriately enough the names of Dr. Bading, the new mayor, Victor Berger and Carl D. Thompson.

The objects of the several clubs, as publicly announced, are strikingly similar. The St. Louis club states that its chief purpose is that of providing "an open forum for the discussion of public affairs." The purpose of the Milwaukee club is "to bring together in intimate association, men, who are sincerely seeking the best interests of our city; to create within the club an ideal of civic betterment, by providing, through addresses at noonday luncheons, through ample literature and otherwise, the best thought of the day in civic matters; to disseminate civic knowledge by newspaper publicity and by bulletins to be published by the club and widely distributed; to promote a spirit of coöperation among the citizens in public matters."

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[1] See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, 245.

In turning over the club programs for recent months one cannot help being impressed with the wide range of interest shown and the practical nature of the matters discussed. It would be hard to imagine a theme which has not been up for discussion in some form at the various clubs. St. Louis takes a preferential vote of the members on the several live subjects of the hour and the program committee is guided by the results. The program of that club for the winter of 1911–12, falls into eleven general divisions: the administration of justice, trusts and corporations, social reform; industrial problems; political reform; local municipal problems; social occasions; the Far East; health; education; and general municipal problems. Among the distinguished speakers before the club have been President Taft, Theodore Roosevelt, Louis D. Brandeis, Governor Harmon, Henry George, Jr., Champ Clark, Dr. Wiley, Dr. W. H. Maxwell, Francis J. Heney, Dr. Delos F. Wilcox, Ella Flagg Young, and Jane Addams. The Boston club entertained the delegates to the convention of the American Institute of Criminal Law and Criminology, in September, 1911, gave receptions to distinguished persons visiting the city during the winter, and listened to talks upon subjects ranging from town planning by Raymond Unwin to detective experience by William J. Burns. The Boston program for the past winter, although it contains a number of themes of local municipal interest, seems to have looked more to general information and entertainment than to the detailed analysis of Boston's pressing problems.

The Philadelphia City Club on the contrary confined its activities rather closely to the instant need of things, for the winter's program contains such topics as supplying Philadelphia with electricity for light and power, the development of the parkway, vice commission for Philadelphia, who are responsible for grossly insanitary conditions in Philadelphia? It must not be thought, however, that there is a want of catholicity in the Quaker City, for the City Club also listened to addresses by Prof. Franklin H. Giddings, Dr. E. Dana Durand, Dr. Wiley, and Harvey N. Shepard.

New York's City Club conducted during the winter fifteen Saturday luncheons and a number of important evening meetings at which subjects of general and local interest were under discussion. The club entertained His Excellency, Count von Bernstorff and has published his address on German cities. The Los Angeles club took up such matters as the city charter, the proposed municipal newspaper, the Good Government and Socialist candidates for the school board, single tax, taxation, social hygiene, public baths, and the work of the legal aid society. The Milwaukee club has been merely a forum, meeting at various hotels, and listening to speeches and discussion by members and guests on civic affairs.

As it was their bounden duty, the women of Los Angeles, enfranchised in October, 1911, have organized a city club of their own. In fact, the new association came into existence in June of that year—a few months before their victory at the polls, and pending the erection of a home of its own is pleasantly located in the Higgins Building. The purpose of the club is to bring together in informal association "those women who are genuinely interested in the improvement, by independent and disinterested methods, of the civic and economic conditions of the community in which they live, in order that, by friendly intercourse, exchange of views, accurate information, and united activities, intelligent and effective coöperation in the work for good government for the City and County of Los Angeles may be secured." It is to be regretted that space does not permit the publication in full of the program of the new club for the year 1911–1912, for it is a model in comprehensiveness, balance, pertinency, and fair-mindedness. It embraces a wide range of topics of practical interest, a hearing of the candidates of all parties in current elections, a consideration of constitutional amendments to be voted on, and discussions of immediate local and national political issues.

It must not be thought, however, that much and appropriate talk is the sole purpose of the city club, even though the essence of democracy is government by discussion. Each of the clubs under survey investigates special local problems and prepares reports of immense practical value. Although non-partisan in character the clubs give a great deal of attention to immediate questions of city politics and administration, and co-operate with officials and local bodies in the execution of varied public programs.

For example, the City Club of St. Louis, in conjunction with the Civic League has just held a civic exhibit displaying the work of the several municipal departments and civic organizations of the city which, it is hoped, may be the precursor of an annual budget exhibit conducted by the municipal authorities. In addition to the usual committees the St. Louis club has a special committee on public service which is designed to serve as an intelligence office to bring together volunteer workers and opportunities for civic service.

The City Club of Los Angeles reports that it has accomplished two important things during the past few months: It has started a movement which will mean the acquirement by the city of the old Normal School site for municipal purposes—a municipal auditorium being one of the buildings in view. The club has succeded in getting both the city and the county to adopt the idea of using the school buildings as polling places. This idea was tried out last December and proved a great success, saving a heavy expense and surrounding the polls with a good environment. In January, 1912, the club began work on the reorganization of the city planning committee.

Chicago's City Club through its committees on parks, playgrounds, and baths, and education, has been studying the relation of the public school buildings to the recreational facilities of the parks, and has made some pertinent recommendations to the city authorities to the effect that needless duplications of facilities can be avoided, with decided economy, by the use of park lands for school purposes and the school buildings for recreational facilities.

In New York City, the City Club has been specially active in the subway developments and the preservation of the City Hall Park. The club strongly supported the constitutional amendments making possible the establishment of a special court for condemning private property for public use and conferring upon cities in the state the power to make excess condemnations—both of which were defeated at the election of 1911 by the vote of the up-state districts. The club secured the repassage of these amendments slightly modified at the session of 1912. Club members have been well represented on important official city commissions. The committee work of the New York Club has been so successful that its methods are worthy of special study. By special request William F. Howes, the committee secretary, furnishes the following brief account of the plans which have been worked out to secure effective committee services:

> A gentleman of considerable experience, well known to the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW's readers, said a year or more ago in my hearing that no system of voluntary committees ever had worked or ever would work successfully. The experience of the New York City Club up to that time went a long way toward bearing him out. A year's experience since has convinced us that proper machinery with intelligent direction can effect constant and important results. A plan devised by Robert S. Binkerd, the club's secretary, is already working well and will undoubtedly work much better.
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> The committees are appointed as a result of the expressed interests of the club members. Every member, on election, is invited to serve upon a committee of his choice. He is also requested to file a "special interest" blank. In the fall of each year the membership is recanvassed and preliminary committee meetings held to which all members interested are invited to bring suggestions. A thorough reorganization follows.
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> Two of the club's committees, both meeting weekly, have always done remarkably effective work. These,—the legislation committee handling all city bills introduced into the state legislature and the committee on city affairs handling the calendars of the board of estimate and the board of alderman,—have been made feeders for the others. The number of matters coming before these two committees during the year is, of course,

enormous. Many require specialized knowledge. Such are immediately referred to the appropriate committees and reports are requested, *and received* on a fixed date, usually within one week. Thus nearly every committee is constantly receiving definite material to work upon and the stereotyped excuse of the chairman that " there did not seem to be anything for him to call his committee together for" is unavailable.

The two civic secretaries are responsible for the preparation of material for the central committees and for making their final action effective after it has received the endorsement of the trustees of the club.

In Grand Rapids a part of the work of a city club is done by the municipal affairs committee of the board of trade, which formerly had as secretary John Ihlder. During 1911, the committee arranged lectures by Dr. L. H. Gulick, William Dudley Foulke and other experts in public affairs. The former came at the instance of the committee in support of its work for "a healthier city." The latter spoke on " Conservation in Municipalities" and during his visit to the city met several members of the new charter commission who took advantage of the opportunity to secure some valuable "pointers" for their undertaking. As a result of a lecture by Mr. Ihlder a special committee was appointed to start a movement for better housing in Grand Rapids. A sub-committee on street lighting has been busy with the problem of a more modern system of lighting, especially for the business streets. Another sub-committee on a more beautiful city set in motion a committee on parks and boulevards which put through a law incorporating an association to acquire land and develop parks and boulevards. This new association began to secure results at once and is now in possession of a large and valuable acreage which will be developed for public uses.

Charles A. Beard[1]

THE BLANKENBURG ADMINISTRATION

On DECEMBER the fourth last, Philadelphia's new administration was inaugurated. In the campaign immediately preceding, the candidates for the mayoralty had pledged themselves to provide, if elected, administrations that should be both business-like and non-partisan. Rudolph Blankenburg was elected after one of the bitterest and closest fought municipal campaigns in the history of the city. He had been known for many years as an advocate of those principles upon which he had made his fight and also as a consistent opponent of the party organization that for a generation had been intrenched in the city hall, and the beginning of his administration was received with a high degree of satisfaction and optimism. His first official action, the naming of his cabinet, was received with general approval. George W. Norris was appointed director of wharves, docks and ferries, George D. Porter of public safety, Herman Loeb of supplies, Morris L. Cooke of public works, Dr. Joseph S. Neff of public health and charities and Cyrus D. Foss, Jr., as mayor's secretary.

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[1] Associate Professor of Politics, Columbia University.

The new administration at once found many difficulties in the way of putting into effect the pledge for a business administration so vigorously advanced by the mayor-elect. The financial condition of the city was far from prosperous. A debt for current operating expenses was carried over from the previous administration and careful tabulation of income and routine expenditures showed a deficit of some $4,000,000. In addition to current demands upon the city revenue, pressing needs appeared for a multiplicity of improvements requiring extraordinary expenditures. As a partial cure for the situation schemes of economy were considered. The payroll was pruned and the system of purchasing supplies revised. The department of supplies, when the new director took control was carrying an overdrawn account and payments made by it were necessarily so tardy that many business men refused to compete for contracts. This difficulty has been remedied, however, by an appropriation of councils and with the funds at hand, the department is now in a position to pay promptly, and this, together with the fact that all bidders are squarely treated, has made possible the purchasing of city supplies with a closeness approximating that of a private corporation—a condition both novel and gratifying.

These economies with similar ones in the letting of contracts for public works in other departments, although they may show a marked saving, will not be sufficient to satisfy the need for large improvements. An unfinished parkway, running diagonally from city hall to Fairmount Park must be pushed to completion at large cost; a subway under Broad Street is insistently demanded by a closely populated and extensive section of the city lying to the north of city hall; wharves and docks are required for the river fronts as the development of the city's harbor facilities and shipping trade is making a strong appeal to the popular imagination,—and the constitutional borrowing capacity of the city has almost been reached. It will therefore be readily understood that a puzzling problem has been presented to the new administration, the solution of which has been sought with considerable ingenuity, but without conclusive success as yet. It was supposed that an amendment which became part of the state constitution by adoption at the election in November at which the new mayor was elected, would simplify the situation. Under it, the borrowing capacity of the city was extended so that it was enabled to issue bonds for the purpose of building subways, wharves, docks and other improvements that would return sufficient upon the investment made to pay the interest upon the bonds and provide a sinking fund for their redemption. But the validity of the bonds which may be issued under the amendment has been questioned so pertinently that it is doubtful if the procedure indicated by the amendment may be made use of.

Notwithstanding the difficulties affecting large work, the department of wharves, docks and ferries has presented an excellent plan for constructive procedure in developing the harbor facilities of the city and a recent ordinance introduced in councils provides for the extension southward of the city's marginal avenue, the most ambitious project of its kind that has been seriously considered for many years. In the department of public health and charities much activity has been manifested. The city's charitable institutions were found to be inadequate and steps are being taken to build a new and large asylum in the upper end of the city at a considerable distance from the congested center of population. The department of public works has found it necessary to revise the personel of its department as preparatory to efficient work. Apparently, it had not before been considered necessary to secure engineers for the work of the department. The new director has secured as his assistant an engineer from the United States navy and as the head of his bureau of highways another engineer of standing. The larger questions most immediately facing this department have to do with the sewerage system of the city, which had been pronounced inadequate, and with the extensive repair of the highways which have fallen into disrepair from long continued neglect. An estimate fixes the sum required to place the streets in good condition, and to open those needed for immediate development, at $4,000,000. The department is preparing to undertake both of these improvements after careful deliberation as to the best course to be pursued and after securing expert advice both in this city and elsewhere. From this brief review of the activities of the several departments it would appear that considerable progress has been made in the establishment of a business administration.

The pledge of a non-partisan administration carried to its legitimate conclusion has resulted in an even more striking difference in character between this and other administrations than the new business principle and its effect is more immediately noticeable. The new mayor for many years was a staunch believer in civil service reform. One of his first acts was the appointment of three civil service commissioners,—Frank M. Riter, Lewis H. VanDusen and Peter Bolger—who were in sympathy with civil service reform and could be relied upon to execute the civil service law with integrity. Since 1885, examinations for certain parts of the city's service had been provided by statute and in 1906 a well drafted and complete civil service law was provided for Philadelphia, but the enforcement of civil service requirements had never been sufficiently strict to impress their existence seriously on the city's civil service. For generations, public office and political office were synonymous and it was generally assumed by men trained in practical politics that the new administration would play the game as previous administrations had played it. Shortly after the inauguration of the new mayor, numberless appeals for political preferment were made to him and the offices of the several directors were besieged with applicants and with political characters interceding for their favorites. It seemed to be inconceivable that the administration honestly intended to persist in a non-partisan course.

It was pointed out time and gain, with much vehemence and considerable logic, that the administration must take a part in politics not only for its own protection, but for the protection of the good citizens who placed it in power, and unless it did so, councils, the majority of whom were not administration men, could thwart its activities, and the state legislature would rip it out of office. These arguments, however plain, have produced but little effect. The new mayor has answered them by attempting something entirely new in the administration of the city's government. He has taken the public into his confidence. He is himself a ready speaker and an appealing one. He and the officers of his cabinet have been called upon time and again to attend dinners and public functions and at them, the mayor makes known his stand upon public questions; his department of public works has organized a bureau of public instruction which provides speakers upon questions concerned with the plans for the city's development; the department of public health has working with it a committee of one hundred interested citizens who have undertaken to aid in the development of the new charitable projects which are being undertaken and to assist in every way in making the department's work successful; in the department of public safety, the hearings of all policemen and firemen to be tried are thrown open to the public; and public questions generally are discussed with a frankness that for manifest reasons could not have been indulged in by preceding administrations.

There is a prevalent conviction that the new mayor's intentions are of the best. His sincerity of purpose is unquestioned and thus far his novel course has been successful. Councils have acted with him and there has been but one occasion when it was necessary to test his power. This arose in connection with an ordinance supported by the mayor which councils refused to acquiesce in. The mayor called a special session, the newspapers supporting his position wrote editorials upon the question, printed the names of the councilmen who had voted for and against the ordinance, and when councils met pursuant to the call, there was discovered a complete reversal of opinion and the mayor's position was endorsed with a generous majority.

This method of "playing the game" is something quite new for Philadelphia. The ideal of a non-partisan municipal government was a real conception to a negligible group of those who had taken an active part in the campaign and in fact to very few citizens at large. The sudden transformation from the venerable system of political favoritism to a theory of non-partisanship has naturally caused a shock to well-established notions of duty due by an elected candidate to his followers and has given rise to lively discussion and dispute which has not, however, moved the mayor from his position. Looking broadly at the accomplishments of the present administration, one matter at least is clear. It has raised a new standard of government in Philadelphia and has awakened the belief that a non-partisan and business-like administration is not an impossibility.

T. Henry Walnut.[1]

COMMUNITY DOCTORS[2]

MEDICAL examination of schools and scholars, especially in this country, is still in the experimental stage. There are still many questions open for discussion; much room for improvement regarding our present methods of examination and administration.

It has been my observation that the medical inspection of schools in the United States is not having adequate results, mainly through the failure to provide trained men and women for this work. It is a distinct specialty, involving wide training, accurate and rapid diagnosis, coupled with great skill in dealing with social conditions, parents, teachers, school boards and the like. And yet this work is generally trusted to a young and inexperienced doctor who accepts the position simply as a preliminary step in working up his medical practice. He does not devote to the study the concentrated attention that he would give to a permanent career. This is because the salaries paid to medical school inspectors in America are absurdly small. In England these salaries are sufficiently adequate to enable men and women to look forward to this work as affording scope for permanent careers. To intrust the care of our school children to inexperience, low paid young medical practitioners, who do the work as a "pot boiling" job, is unfair to the children and to the physician.

The present volume on *Examination of Schools and Scholars* can not fail to impress the reader with the importance of this branch of medical work on the future welfare of society. The statement was made at a meeting of the School Hygiene Association of New York City that the physician of the future would serve less and less in the capacity of family doctor and more and more as the community doctor; that he would devote a decreasing amount of time in studying and curing individual cases of disease, and a proportionately increasing amount of time in teaching the laws of health and preventive medicine.

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[1] Counsel and Secretary of the Civil Service Reform Association of Pennsylvania and member of the Pennsylvania House of Representatives.

[2] Medical examination of schools and scholars. Edited by T. N. Kelynack P. S. King and Son, London, Publishers.

The efforts of guarding the community health through attention to the health of the school child by means of medical examination, not for contagious diseases but for physical defects, is a striking instance of this "humanizing medicine." The present volume aims to "provide school medical officers, managers of schools, educationalists, and all interested in the national care of the health of our children, with a complete, reliable guide to every department of medical school service." It consists of a collection of studies by thirty-six men of several nationalities, who are experts in their respective lines. Men who might be termed "community doctors" in the sense above referred to. It provides material gathered from sources dealing with every aspect of the question, and the status of medical examination in fourteen countries is told of. The provision adopted by the different countries in respect to medical inspection of schools is of general interest.

The English law of 1907 provides for the compulsory examination of children in the public elementary schools. Scotch laws contain a clause providing that every teacher be thoroughly familiar with the importance of school and personal hygiene, a special training being provided for this purpose. Sweden has had medical school officers since 1830. Wales, though far behind England in this matter, has employed in the school medical service 127 medical officers as well as about 15 school nurses and a few health visitors whose duties consist of assisting the school medical officers, a fair percentage for the size of the country. Ireland is far behind the other countries in the matter of school accommodations of many sorts and is unworthy to rank with the other of the British Isles in medical inspection, so Dr. James Alexander Lindsay tells us. New Zealand also has made but little organized endeavor in the direction of medical schools inspection. France claims the honor of instituting the first scheme for the medical inspection of its school children. As far back as 1783 the matter was brought up for discussion, though nothing was definitely adopted till after the revolution. In Norway the medical examination on schools and scholars is still in its beginning, but every indication points to this form of social good reaching a speedy perfection in that country. The discussion of this question as it concerns other countries are all of value to those practically interested in this movement.

The bulk of the book deals with the different phases of medical inspection as it exists in England, with chapters on the inspection of schools and school buildings, a description of necessary equipments for medical examination, danger signals of defects, and other points relative to the matter of school and personal hygiene. The chapter dealing with dental conditions in elementary school children, should prove of special value. The investigation of some tens of thousands of records of school children in this country have proved that the average child having decayed teeth, several cavities, requires something over five months longer to complete their elementary school course than do those children not affected this way. Children with painful teeth chew their food less effectively, in many cases eat less also, in either case a fundamental factor in nutrition has been interfered with, the ultimate results being a lessened vigor. I cite this as an example of the importance of dental inspection as well as the medical examination.

The chapter on open air schools is of sufficient interest to create a desire for the possible establishment of more of this kind of institutions. This is the preventive medicine exemplified, and the excellent results obtained point to the influence the open air school promises to bring to bear on elementary education in general.

The appended bibliographies to each chapter are comprehensive, and, for assistance to those desiring further study will prove of practical value.

At present practically every state in the union has laws dealing with medical examination of schools, but in many cases the child is examined and the diagnosis filed away for future reference and nothing actually happens to the child. There are not enough doctors to give sufficient examinations and there are not enough nurses to see that the prescriptions of the doctors are carried out. If this volume aids in the correcting of the fault which lies behind the trouble in America—the inadequate salaries paid—it will have served as a means to an excellent end, in this country if no further.

LUTHER H. GULICK.[1]

A MUNICIPAL NEWSPAPER

THE *Los Angeles Municipal News* is a weekly, 12-page newspaper of ordinary newspaper size and appearance, published by the city of Los Angeles. Sixty thousand copies are printed in each weekly edition and distributed free throughout the city.

In its news columns the paper confines itself almost entirely to news items relating to the city government, but not exclusively so; its news field being limited rather by the discretion of the commission in charge then by any hard and fast rules governing its publication. Municipal news is featured in the paper by being given the prominent positions and the big headlines.

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[1] The Department of Child Hygiene of the Russell Sage Foundation.

The editorial policy of the paper follows the official policies of the city, as the same have been determined by the city charter, and express vote of the people, or by city ordinance. The editorial policy of the paper is instructive and descriptive, rather than argumentative or exhortatory.

When any municipal question is actively under discussion before the people, that is to say, before the official policy of the city has been determined in the matter, *The Los Angeles Municipal News* appoints two special writers, each of whom writes a special column—one on each side of the question under discussion—and the two columns are published side by side properly headlined as the arguments for and against. The two special writers, though appointed and paid by the paper, each consult freely with the friends of the side of the controversy which they represent, and in a very large measure present the arguments for that side in accordance with the wishes of the leading proponents thereof. This provision for a hearing for each side of active public questions is one of the most highly appreciated features of the paper.

Each political party, whether national or local, that polls 3 per cent of the vote of the city at any regular election, is allowed the free use of one column in each issue of *The Los Angeles Municipal News.* In these columns, each carrying appropriate headlines to indicate the respective parties to which they belong, the political parties are allowed to express their positions on public questions in their own way, free from any censorship whatsoever by the management of the paper, excepting that the matter published in the columns must be lawful for publication. The city administration or the newspaper itself may be freely criticized in these party columns. At the present time there are five of these party columns, to wit: Republican, Democratic, Socialist, Socialist-Labor and Good Government. Some of the parties use their columns only for the discussion of national or state questions, and refrain from taking any part in the discussion of municipal issues, and some visa versa; while others set no such limitations upon themselves.

The Los Angeles Municipal News accepts ordinary commercial advertising of approved classes. As illustrating the kinds of advertising that are barred, the paper will accept no medical advertisements, no advertisements of stocks and bonds that are not listed on a regular stock exchange unless the same have paid dividends regularly for the past three years, and no liquor advertisements.

The voters of Los Angeles established *The Los Angeles Municipal News* by a very large majority vote on an initiative ordinance creating the newspaper, which ordinance was submitted to a popular vote at the regular city election in December, 1911. The voters sought to establish a paper which would have three leading characteristics:

1. It should give prominence to municipal matters and not allow them to be side-tracked for the sensations of the day.

2. It should publish the municipal news accurately, not coloring its news columns with bias of any kind.

3. It should make ample provision for the publication of the arguments on each side of live public questions.

The feeling of the voters was strong that the affairs of the city were altogether too much in the hands of the privately owned newspapers, whose news columns often contained bias, and whose editorials displayed a one-sided advocacy.

The scheme of *The Los Angeles Municipal News*, above outlined, has been regarded by some as the extreme of ridiculous foolishness, and by others as possessing almost immeasurable potentialities for municipal betterment.

At the time of the writing of this article, five issues of the paper have been printed. Owing to limited financial resources, the typographical appearance of the paper is not as yet first class, but is gradually improving. Its reception by the voters of the city has been, on the whole, favorable, and the friends of the enterprise are unshaken in the confidence that it has a field to fill and is sure to succeed.

The original plan contemplated a 40,000 edition of an 8-page paper; but all issues so far have been of 60,000 12-page papers. This enlargement of the original plans has been made possible by the fact that the advertising receipts have been larger than was anticipated. The advertising receipts, whatever they may amount to, go to the support of the newspaper, together with a regular cash appropriation of $700 a week from the city treasury.

George H. Dunlop.[1]

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[1] President of the Municipal Newspaper Commission of Los Angeles City.

DEPARTMENT OF REPORTS

Edited by John A. Fairlie

Professor of Political Science, University of Illinois

Five British Municipal Annuals.[1]—These five British annuals bear eloquent testimony to the activities of British municipalities, and to the interest of the British public in municipal affairs—for without such interest it would be impracticable to publish such compendious volumes.

Leading position is deservedly given to *The Municipal Year Book*, which from modest beginnings has developed into a volume of more than eleven hundred pages. The book is about equally divided in space between (1) a classified official directory, accompanied by a few leading historical and statistical facts and by an outline of municipal undertakings, and (2) more detailed information regarding municipal activities, grouped topically. In the first part the arrangement is by incorporated municipalities, county councils, urban districts and rural districts, classified further by the grand divisions of the United Kingdom. In the second part water supply, gas supply, tramways, motors in municipal service, electricity supply, housing of the working classes and town planning, education, markets and slaughter houses, baths and workhouses, libraries, sewage disposal, fire protection, indebtedness, local taxation returns, and still other topics are taken up. The water, gas and some other sections are almost wholly statistical.

The various sections are provided with brief introductions, some of which outline the governing parliamentary legislation. The housing and town planning act of 1909 is given in full. Altogether these introductions sketch nearly the whole scheme of British local government.

While the grouping together in sections of information on water supplies, gas supplies, education, and other municipal functions has obvious advantages for anyone who wishes to compare what is being done in a given line in various places it has the disadvantage of not giving a complete picture of the activities of each municipality. Where the information is statistical much space is saved by the grouping and comparisons are facilitated, but where the facts are in the form of text the segregation grouping seems to have but little advantage. It should be added, however, that in many cases some information as to local undertakings is given in the first part of the volume.

The *Year Book* gives information for none but municipally-owned undertakings, thus necessitating references to other year books for information regarding privately-owned water supplies, gas works or tramways. While this is in some respects an inconvenience it may be excused in view of the wide scope of the work and the large size which the book has attained within its self-imposed limits.

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[1] The Municipal Year Book of the United Kingdom for 1912. Albert E. Cave, Editor. London: The Municipal Journal, Ltd. Cloth; 6 x 9¼in., pp. 1131 + xxxix. 15s., net. American price, $6, net.

The Local Government Annual and Official Directory, 1912. Officially corrected. Edited by S. Edgecumbe Rogers. London: The Local Government Journal Office (27a Farringdon Street). Cloth; 4¾ x 7 in.; pp. 292. 1s. 6d., net; American price, 60c., net.

The Public Health Service Directory and Year Book, 1911. Compiled by the Editor of "The Medical Officer." London: Hodgetts, Ltd., 36 Whitefriars Street, E. C. Cloth; 10 x 6 ins.; pp. 374. 7s. 6d., net; American price, $3.

The Water-Works Directory and Statistics, 1911; Including Alphabetical Index of Officials and List of Associations of Water Engineers. London: Hazell, Watson, & Viney, Ltd., 52 Long Acre, W. C. Cloth; 5½ x 8½ in.; pp. 414 + lvii. 10s. 6d., net; American price, $4.25 net.

The Gas Works Directory and Statistics 1911-1912—(Revised to August, 1911). With a list of Chairmen, Managers, Engineers and Secretaries, and lists of Associations of Engineers and Managers. London: Hazell, Watson, & Viney, Ltd., 52 Long Acre, W. C. Cloth; 5½ x 8½ in.; pp. lxviii + 491. 10s. 6d., net; American price $4.25, net.

As a whole *The Municipal Year Book* well deserves the high regard in which it is held by students of municipal government on both sides the Atlantic.

The Local Government Annual and Official Directory is a handy little volume which seems to be well worth its modest price. For London and the boroughs comprising the county of London a little general information is given; otherwise the information is confined almost wholly to population and to the names of two or three officials of each locality included.

The most surprising of the five annuals is *The Public Health Service Directory and Year Book*, now published for the second time, and extending to 374 closely printed octavo pages. It contains a public health calendar, showing for each day of the year what meetings and examinations of direct interest to health officials are to be held in the principal British cities. This is followed by a statement of conditions for obtaining degrees and diplomas in public health from fifteen universities and other institutions in England, Wales, Scotland and Ireland, and a brief account of the powers and duties of medical officers of health.

There is next given for each city, borough, county, urban and rural district in Great Britain its population, area, medical officer of health, sanitary inspector, city engineer, public analyst, bacteriologist, health visitor and various other officials having to do more or less directly with public health. For the smaller places, of course, only a few of the positions exist. Salaries paid are given in many instances. Officials concerned in the medical inspection of school children are given for each "education authority." This section is prefaced by a statement regarding the work and powers of these medical school officers.

The information outlined is all and perhaps more than one might expect in a health directory which has only reached its second year, but in addition there is a whole series of Who's Who in public health work, arranged alphabetically under medical officers, public analysts, school dentists, veterinary officers, sanitary inspectors (men and women separately), health inspectors, inspectors of midwives, and school nurses. These separate directories are prefaced with brief articles, especially contributed, on the functions of the school dentist, and so on, including one entitled Women in Public Health Work, by Mabel Portlack.

The volume. concludes with a list of isolation hospitals, by cities and towns, with numbers of beds; size of nursing staffs, dates established, and names of medical officers and matrons in charge a Who's Who of hospital matrons; and a long list of national and local health societies, their secretaries and objects.

Aside from its mass of carefully prepared information the *Public Health Directory* is impressive for the evidence of training and of important positions held by many of the men and women listed in its various directories, and particularly for the fact that there appears to be a sufficient permanency of tenure of these officials to warrant going to so much pains to collect and publish their names and records. While we have in the United States a considerable number of health officials who have held office continuously for many years they are few in number and for the most part could show little special education or training for their work.

The *Water Works Directory and Statistics* and the *Gas Works Directory and Statistics* present in concise well arranged form the ownership (public and private), leading officers, general character and extent of plants, prices charged and a small amount of financial information for the water and gas works of the United Kingdom. The water works are arranged alphabetically for the whole kingdom, but the gas works are given separately for England and Wales, Scotland, and Ireland. Each directory contains an alphabetical list of the officials included under the various cities and towns. In the *Water Works Directory* death rates are given and a few water analyses.

Neither the gas or water works directory gives summaries of any kind, not even the number of works included. The small general municipal directory is likewise without summaries. *The Municipal Year Book* gives the total number of municipal corporations, county councils, urban districts and rural districts, with aggregate populations in each case. Other summaries are given, but not all that one might desire or perhaps expect. For instance, it would be interesting to know how many places in the United Kingdom have refuse destructors. A few minutes' work on the part of a single editorial assistant and the printing of the results of the count would answer this question for scores of people. Other valuable summaries could be made with a slight outlay of labor for compiling or expense for paper and printing, both for *The Municipal Year Book* and the gas and water works directories. But there is more reason to be thankful for the wealth of information given than to complain of a few omissions.

Unfortunately we now have no American annuals like those under review, with the exception of Brown's *Directory of American Gas Companies*. This was not always so. *The Statistical Tables of American Water Works* was published once in two years from 1883 to 1887 and was succeeded by *The Manual of American Water Works*, which was published annually for three years and again in 1897, since which it has not been reissued. In 1902 *The Municipal Year Book* was published, in part as a successor of the *Manual*, but with an idea of covering in less detail the whole municipal field, including both public and private undertakings.

As both the *Manual* and the *Year Book* were edited by the reviewer it is not fitting that much should be said about them here, except that they did not yield sufficient return to warrant the vast amount of labor and the heavy outlay entailed by the collection and compilation of the returns and the preparation of the editorial summaries which formed a part of each volume. Even as far back as 1896, the year covered by the last *Manual*, there were 4125 more or less complete water works in the United States and Canada. To present descriptions and statistics of these required more than six hundred large, closely printed pages, although the historical and descriptive matter given in the first editions was omitted. *The Municipal Year Book*, though confined to cities and towns of the United States having 3000 population and over, presented information for 1527 places. An American water works annual for 1912, on the lines of the 1897 *Manual*, would probably include 6000 to 8000 water works and require a thousand pages or more, while an American municipal year book of such scope as the British annual would require several volumes of like size, especially if an attempt were made to outline the local government of each of our 46 states. Fortunately the federal bureau of the census gives us a considerable body of municipal statistics every year for places of 30,000 population and upwards, and less frequently for smaller places, down to 8000. Some of our states also publish municipal statistics. (See notice of federal and state collections of municipal statistics in this number of the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW.

M. N. BAKER.

Upper Montclair, N. J.

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Federal and State Collections of Municipal Statistics.[1]—The United States bureau of the census, the states of Massachusetts, New York, Ohio, Indiana and

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[1] Statistics of Cities having a Population of Over 30,000—1909, Washington, D.C.; Bureau of the Census. Cloth; 9 by 12 ins.; pp. 353.

The Cost of Municipal Government in Massachusetts.—Statistics of Municipal Finances for the Year

Iowa, the province of Ontario and possibly some other states and provinces are now publishing yearly volumes of municipal statistics. The federal statistics are limited to cities of 30,000 and over, although figures for cities down to 8000 were brought out some years ago. As a rule, the state reports cover cities, towns or villages and rural districts. Most of the statistics are financial, but in alternate years the bureau of the census gives a considerable body of physical statistics as well, and some of the state reports also contain a few physical statistics. For the most part, the financial statistics deal with totals for each city or department, rather than with unit figures—such as per capita costs or debts, rates of taxation, etc. The census reports and the reports of some of the states give totals by groups of cities or for all the cities or other municipalities included.

The slowly growing number of states that are making provision for the collection and publication of municipal statistics gives promise of better things in the future. The promise is greatest where the state department charged with collecting statistics prescribes the accounting system and audits the accounts, as is done in Ohio. In the other states under consideration the state department seems to have no power beyond that of requiring reports in accordance with forms prescribed by the departments, which must be uniform for all municipalities, or for all within each class. The Massachusetts statute was amended in 1910 so as to permit the department to install and audit accounts for any city and town, on petition therefrom. The New York law makes it the duty of the department to formulate and prescribe uniform accounts. The Indiana law provides for field examiners of municipal accounts, which presumably might be interpreted to mean a more or less complete audit. The Iowa report noted herewith states that with few exceptions the uniform system of accounts prescribed by law has been adopted throughout the state.

Turning now to the individual reports it is fitting to consider first the one issued by the bureau of the census. The latest of these yet published is for the year 1908. The cities included are distributed over the whole United States. The statistical scheme followed is an elaboration of the one devised by a committee of the National Municipal League, after years of study. The aim is to conform with good accounting practice and to classify departmental statistics along functional lines. The main statistical divisions are assets, liabilities, expenses, interest, outlays and revenue, payments and receipts, but there is considerable sub-classification. Some eighty pages of text are employed by way of introduction and analysis, including an explanation of the accounting terminology used and general tables of analysis and summary. The report was prepared by Mr. Le Grand Powers, assisted by Mr. E. H. Maling, and sets a high standard for the state bureaus to follow. None would be quicker than the census officials to admit that there is room for improvement in its subsequent reports. Such deficiencies as exist, however, are largely due to difficulties inherent in any attempt to present on a truly comparable basis the statistics of cities scattered through forty independent commonwealths, with little making towards uni-

1908–9. Third Annual Report. Boston, Mass.: The Director of the Bureau of Statistics. Stiff paper; 6 by 9½ ins.; pp. 233.

Special Report on Municipal Accounts by the State Comptroller.—Albany, N. Y. Paper; 6 x 9 ins.; pp. 119.

Comparative Statistics Cities of Ohio, 1910.—Columbus, Ohio: Department of Auditor of State, Bureau of Inspection and Supervision of Public Offices. Paper; 6½ by 9 ins.; pp. 238.

First Annual Report of Inspection and Supervision of Public Offices of Indiana.—Indianapolis, Ind. Cloth; 6 by 9 ins.; pp. 377.

Statistics of Cities and Towns of Iowa.—Fourth Annual Report, 1910–11.—Des Moines, Iowa: Department of Finance and Municipal Accounts. Cloth; 6 by 9 ins.; pp. 237.

Municipal Statistics of Ontario.—Part III of Bureau of Industries, 1908. Toronto, Ont.: Department of Agriculture. Paper; 6 by 9½ ins.; pp. 160.

formity save the fact that the census bureau is engaged annually in the attempt to so re-combine non-uniform statistics as to make them uniform.

The Massachusetts report covers 33 cities, 71 towns of more than 5000 population and 143 (of 250) towns of smaller size, together with three towns in the Boston metropolitan district. The figures for each group are separately presented. The plan of the report is similar in many respects, but less comprehensive, than that of the census report. Naturally, more statistics are given for the cities than for the towns and more for the larger than smaller towns. Summaries for the whole state and also a section on accounting terminology are included. There are few or no physical statistics and few unit figures. Mr. Charles F. Gettemy is director of the Massachusetts bureau of statistics.

The first state collection of municipal statistics of New York was published in 1908 or early 1909. That report covered 39 of the 42 cities of the second and third classes, 423 of the 438 villages, and 56 of the 57 counties of the state. The classification was departmental rather than functional, but the departments were in considerable measure along unctional lines. The report just issued and now before us appears to cover the year ending September 30, 1910. It is about a third of the size of the first report and as over half its contents is text, while the first one had but little text, it will be seen that fewer statistics are given in the later than in the earlier report. A considerable part of the text deals with the examination of the accounts of a number of counties and a few cities and villages, which exposed many irregularities. No summaries or analyses of the statistical tables are given. The statistics for 1909-10 were taken from such reports as were filed at Albany. A considerable number of counties and cities and many villages are not represented. The range of statistics is limited and the classification does not agree closely with that of any other of the reports.

The report for Ohio includes returns for 70 cities. Broadly, its classifications are similar to those of the census and of Massachusetts, but they differ materially in some particulars and are much more detailed. All three reports follow functional as well as accounting lines. The Ohio report gives the salaries paid to many classes of officials and clerks. It also includes some per capita statistics of receipts, expenditures, indebtedness and sinking funds. State summaries are lacking.

The Indiana report covers 462 cities and towns, 311 school corporations, 1017 school and civil townships, counties of the state and various state institutions. The arrangement of the places is by counties, which is very inconvenient from nearly every point of view. The statistics are not so comprehensive as those given in the federal, Massachusetts and Ohio reports. In fact, little is given except classified inventories of property owned, outstanding indebtedness, and balances, receipts and disbursements. There is a brief introduction and totals for the state are given. William A. Dehority is state examiner of Indiana.

The report for Iowa embraces 101 cities arranged in order of population (75, 626 to 1626, by the U. S. census of 1910), and some 650 towns, arranged alphabetically. Aside from lighting prices and waterworks rates and figures most of the statistics for Iowa are financial. A functional classification is followed. Disbursements, receipts and cash balances are given, but there appear to be no statements of assets and liabilities. State totals are freely given, at the head of table columns, but summaries and analyses for the whole state are not presented. A directory of municipal officials is given and also a digest of the municipal laws of the state.

The latest Ontario report at hand gives receipts, disbursements, assets and liabilities for the year 1907 for the various classes of municipalities, townships and counties, with comparative aggregates for the whole province for a decade. A second division contains population, area, assessed valuation, and exemption from taxation for the year 1908. Some of these figures are also presented in total for the province for a period of ten years. The first group of figures is arranged alphabetically by localities, for the whole province, but for the last group the arrangement is first by counties, then alphabetically.

A study of the foregoing outline of the various reports listed brings out two striking facts: (1) each report follows a plan of its own, and (2) nearly all the figures are totals for a department, a whole city or a state. The federal report has a resemblance of uniformity which would probably be found to be seriously lacking in fact, if one could go back to the original computations of returns, made necessary by the different systems of classification which prevail throughout the country.

Finally, it seems pertinent to ask of how much real value, besides satisfying the curious, are these hundreds of pages of statistics, dealing as they do almost wholly with mere totals, containing either little or no interpretative analysis or summary and practically no unit figures? Even per capita figures would be of little value without some kind of weighting which would take into account the quality as well as the quantity of the service rendered; and even then allowances would need to be made for variations in local conditions. These remarks are made not to discourage such statistical computations, but to show rather how much yet remains to be done before municipal statistics are put on a sound basis of comparability and utility. The task thus far has been long and wearisome. Little has yet been accomplished except to show a comparatively few people how inadequate is American municipal accounting as a whole and how lacking we are in those systematic physical statistics without which unit costs are impossible. So far as financial statistics are concerned, unit costs alone throw any large clear light on municipal efficiency, and such costs must reflect quality as well as quality.

M. N. Baker.

Montclair, N. J.

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Metropolitan Sewerage Commission of New York.[1]—The question of sewage disposal is being made the subject of thorough study by the city of New York with the object of protecting the harbor of the Metropolis against pollution.

Pollution, as applied to the water of a great seaport, has a meaning quite different from that which attaches to this term as applied to the water of reservoirs, lakes or bodies of sea water in which shellfish are grown. Harbor waters must unavoidably be contaminated with sewage matters to some extent because of shipping. The peculiar problem which must be faced by New York and other cities similarly situated is to prevent the pollution of its navigable waters to such an extent and in such ways as will produce a nuisance or disease.

New York's sewage disposal problem is being studied by a board of engineers created by the state and city of New York and known as the Metropolitan sewerage commision. It was brought into existence in 1906, reorganized in 1908 and will complete its labor by May,

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[1] Reports made by the Metropolitan Sewerage Commission of New York:

Digest of the Data Collected Before the Year 1908 Relating to the Sanitary Condition of New York Harbor. 1909.

Preliminary Report: Metropolitan Sewerage Commission of New York. March, 1910.

Sewerage and Sewage Disposal in the Metropolitan District of New York and New Jersey. April, 1910.

Report on the Discharge of Sewage from the Proposed Passaic Valley Sewer of New Jersey. May, 1910.

Report on the Discharge of Sewage from the Bronx Valley Sewer. July, 1910.

Preliminary Report No. 1: Study of the Collection of the Sewage of New York City to a Central Point for Disposal. September, 1911.

Preliminary Report No. 2: Description of the Four Principal Drainage Divisions in that Part of the Metropolitan Sewerage District which lies in New York State. November, 1911.

1913. The total cost of the investigation made by the commission, including the preparation of plans for main drainage and such sewage purification works and improved outfalls as are necessary will be about $200,000.

The commission has stated with all possible clearness its sense of the importance of putting a stop to the unrelated and unsanitary methods of sewage disposal which have been followed in the metropolitan territory of New York and New Jersey, and has urged that prompt action be taken to establish an effective system of conservancy to protect and improve the condition of the harbor. This system of conservancy should be carried out under the direction of an interstate commission having equal jurisdiction in New York and New Jersey. The practical measures of conservancy recommended by the commission are main drainage,such as has been adopted by London, Paris, Berlin, and other great cities of the world, and works for finally disposing of the sewage in accordance with modern scientific principles.

Up to the present the sewage of New York and neighboring cities has been discharged into the harbor through numerous outlets in the belief that the destructive effects of the salt water and the flushing movements of the tide would cause the offensive materials to disappear. The commission has found that the benefits to be derived from the natural forces are much less than has been supposed and that the tidal movements cause the sewage to oscillate back and forth for long periods of time instead of of being carried promptly to sea. A floating buoy which was set adrift by the commission pursued a long and devious course, but was picked up four days later within 1000 feet of where it was originally released.

The total quantity of sewage discharged into New York harbor at the present time is about 700,000 gallons per twenty-four hours, or sufficient to fill one of the largest navigable channels of the harbor for a distance of about a quarter of a mile. By 1940 the commission estimates that the population will be double what it is today and the quantity of sewage will be correspondingly increased. There will thus be an ever increasing burden of polluting matter discharged into the harbor, unless protective measures are adopted.

The injurious consequences of pollution are described by the commission as including the production of extensive deposits of sludge, discoloration of the water, production of offensive odors and danger to health through bathing, the collection of driftwood and the gathering of shellfish either from planted beds or from natural growths near the outskirts of the harbor. Considerable emphasis is placed upon the offense to the sense of decency produced by the appearance of the sewage at the surface of the water, among the docks and piers, parks and other much frequented places

Owing to the density of which most of the water front of New York is already settled, the commission considers it impossible to find sufficient available land for the location of works for the complete purification of the sewage. The cost of carrying the sewage through trunk sewers to the ocean appears to be prohibitive. It would cost an excessive sum of money to collect all the sewage to one central point in the country and there purify it by biological methods. The only land at all suitable for the disposal of the sewage by irrigation is on Long Island and the immense area, over 80 square miles, which would be required for this purpose make this method of disposal impracticable. In the commission's opinion, it will be necessary to utilize what is called the "digestive capacity" of the harbor water for the assimilation of most of the sewage.

It is proposed to collect the sewage of New York to a number of centrally located points near the water front and there remove as much of the impurities as necessary and carry them to sea in tank steamers. For the purpose of collecting the sewage, the commission proposes the division of the city into five main drainage districts. For each of these districts a system of arterial collecting sewers leading to disposal works works is being designed.

A number of printed reports have been issued by the commission. A volume of 550 quarto pages with numerous maps, tables and other illustrations was published in April, 1910. This volume has been in much demand by engineers and municipal and state officials in the United States and other countries. It is now out of print and can be consulted only in such libraries and public offices as have received it. Smaller reports have been issued from time to time and others will be published until the commission goes out of existence. A second quarto volume, similar in form to the first and containing much original data, is now in press. In it the commission reports upon the present sanitary condition of the harbor and the degree of cleanness necessary for the waters.

At the forthcoming International Congress on Hygiene and Demography, to be held in Washington in September, the Metropolitan sewerage commission of New York will give a full exhibition of its work, using maps, plans, diagrams and models to illustrate its numerous methods and results of research and the plans and projects which it proposes.

George A. Soper.

New York.

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Public Utilities Regulation in New York City.—The New York public service commission for the first district has recently published an illustrated pamphlet on *State Regulation of Public Service Corporations in the City of New York*, which is an easy reading, instructive and interesting summary of the work of the public service commission for the first district, from 1907 to 1911.

In an introductory summary this pamphlet sets forth, in facts and figures, the changes and improvements which have been made in the service and property of public service corporations in New York City and on the city's rapid transit lines, in the four years following the creation of the commission in July 1, 1907. A few of the most striking follow:

More than 5000 complaints have been received and investigated; traffic in the subway has grown from a daily average of 456,000 to 758,000, and revenue car mileage has increased from 37,184,940 to 57,110,868. On the street surface lines all cars have been overhauled and repaired and new cars purchased; life saving fenders and wheelguards have been installed on all surface cars at an expense of $300,000 to $400,000; and the number of persons killed on all transportation lines has decreased from 500 in the fiscal year 1907–1908 to 334 in the fiscal year 1910–1911. Transfer privileges between intersecting surface car lines in Manhattan and the Bronx, which were cut off after the Metropolitan street railway system went into bankruptcy, have been ordered restored at 151 points.

On the elevated railroads, the total number of revenue passengers carried has increased from 282,924,273 to 301,449,292, and the average daily number of passengers has increased from 775,133 to 825,886. Regulations for the maintenance of comfortable temperature in the cars in the subway, on the elevated and on surface car lines have been established. The commission has obtained from the legislature appropriations aggregating $500,000 as the state's one-quarter of the expense of eliminating grade crossings in Greater New York; and under these appropriations has ordered eliminated a number of dangerous grade crossings.

In rapid transit work, the Brooklyn extension and the Van Cortlandt Park extension of the existing subway have been completed and opened to traffic. Permanent improvements to the subway, including the lengthening of station-platforms, have been made at a cost of more than $3,000,000. Contracts for the Fourth Avenue subway in Brooklyn—a four track subway, four miles in length—

have been let, and the work is practically completed. The contract price is nearly $16,000,000.

One of the first acts of this commission was to conduct an investigation into the condition of the surface car system in Manhattan and the Bronx. This investigation held in 1907, disclosed conditions involving over-capitalization, misuse of company funds, neglect of road and equipment leading to serious deterioration, etc., and was followed by the placing of the entire metropolitan street railway system in the hands of receivers.

The business of furnishing gas and electricity in New York City is in the hands of monopolies. In Manhattan and the Bronx the gas business is handled largely by the Consolidated Gas Company and its affiliated concerns, while the electric business is mainly done by the New York Edison Company, and its affiliated corporations. It is the duty of the commission to test all gas and electric meters before they are placed by the company. In the first four years of its existence the commission made 1,378,627 tests of gas meters. It will not be very long until every gas meter set in the city of New York will have been tested and sealed by the public authorities.

As the commission has the power to reduce the rates of gas and electric companies, if found to be unreasonable, it has conducted several proceedings involving the question of rates and contracts. New York Edison Company met the commission's requests in a spirit of fairness, and, on July 1, 1911, put into effect a new tariff embodying a complete revision of rates. These revised rates are now in effect and according to an estimate made by the company, they amount to a saving to their customers of $1,250,000 per annum. A complaint against the Queen's Borough Company resulted in reduced rates which are now in effect.

A provision of the law forbids public service corporations under its jurisdiction to issue new bonds or stock without the approval of the commission. Therefore the commission has been called upon from time to time to pass upon applications for its approval of various issues of proposed securities by various companies. The decisions of the commission as to security issues were contested in the courts only in two instances.

This report concludes with a brief description of the commission's rapid transit work. The duty of laying out and supervising the construction of rapid transit railroads takes about three-quarters of the time of the commission and is responsible for more than 60 per cent of its total expenditures, amounting to between $600,000 and $700,000 a year. This has led to some public misapprehension as to the cost of a regulating commission. A short history and description of the existing subway, the Brooklyn loop subway, the Fourth Avenue subway, and the Interborough subway completes the sixty-nine pages of what is necessarily a bare résumé of four years' work.

A. E. PINANSKI.

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City Plan Reports and Commissions[1]—Dallas has been one of the most progressive cities of the Southwest and this carefully devised plan is an outgrowth of this progressiveness. In fact it is the first city in that section to go at its problem in a thorough-going, careful way. As far back as 1904 the city retained Mr. Kessler to prepare plans for the state fair grounds, a year later the park board came into being, and in 1910 the chamber of commerce organized the city plan and development. This body and the park board are responsible for this report, which may perhaps be best described as a characteristic piece of Kessler work, designed not for "the building of the city, but to formulate recommendations for rebuilding along broader lines." Mr. Kessler believes with all the modern city planners that the need for a city plan would not be evident unless both the commercial and social life of the community seriously felt "the hampering effects of the existing natural and artificial barriers preventing rational expansion of business and residential districts."

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[1] A City Plan for Dallas: Report of Park Board Prepared by George E. Kessler, 1912.

City Plan Association Report. St. Louis, 1911.

Report on Dock and Pier Development Harbor District No. 1. The Harbor and Subway Commission of the City of Chicago. 1912.

This report is particularly valuable because it discusses and suggests plans for a city which in an exaggerated form presents the difficulties attendant upon the expansion into a great city of a village at a temporary railroad terminus, no special thought having been given in the interim to the needs of the increasing population and business.

In calling attention to this report and plan mention must in all fairness be made to the Dallas *News*, which has been a pioneer in the movement, not only in Dallas and in Texas, but throughout the Southwest.

The city plan commission of St. Louis, created by the city by virtue of an ordinance, is an evolution. For five years the Civic League through committees had been conducting voluntary efforts to encourage city planning. The board of public improvements and the municipal assembly have taken important steps along modern lines in the direction of a city plan. In 1910 public spirited St. Louisans formed a city plan association, composed of citizens who paid from their own pockets the expense of investigation, and the preparation of suggestions for a city plan. It prepared a very valuable report upon the subject of city planning for St. Louis. The movement had gained such strength through these several efforts that the city plan commission was created by ordinance within the year.

The scheme of this official organization is one that promises effective results. The commission is composed of six city officials and nine citizens. The former are the heads of the legislative and technical departments of the municipal government, the others are appointed by the mayor. The theory of this scheme of organization is that it brings into close intimate relations upon the work of city planning the heads of departments and branches of the government having most to do with city planning, and a sufficient number of citizens to represent fairly the various sections and interests of the city concerned in the movement. In the provisions for the duties of the commission the ordinance is comprehensive. The commission is "to suggest the state and municipal legislation necessary to carry out the recommendations of the commission," and these recommendations are to include:

(*a*) Improvement of the river front; (*b*) extension of streets and the supervision of the opening of subdivisions; (*c*) improvement of surroundings of Union Station; (*d*) a system of widening and opening various through streets so as to make the city more cohesive and less disjointed; (*e*) control of nuisances; (*f*) a playground, park and boulevard system; (*g*) location of public buildings; (*h*) encouraging the location of manufacturing establishments in designated districts; (*i*) extension of conduit district for wires; (*j*) extension of granitoid sidewalk districts, and for the regulation of same in the residence districts so as to provide for the planting of trees and for sufficient soil space to assure their growth; (*k*) such other improvements as will tend to make St. Louis a better city.

This report contains a number of excellent addresses on city planning, sundry maps and bird's-eye views and an account of the situation in St. Louis just prior to the creation of the commission.

Chicago has far reaching plans of civic improvement, looked after by several boards and commissions. One of the latter charged with suggesting the ways and means for increasing and improving the water front facilities, has just presented to the city council a report respecting the construction of initial piers in what is known as Outer Harbor District No. 1. It considers in great detail a project involving an expenditure of $5,000,000 on the lake front at the mouth of the Chicago River. These plans have been approved by the harbor committee of council.

The city plan commission is at work on a lake front park, also on certain harbor and dock development and widening of the Illinois Central right of way. The first plan submitted was not found satisfactory; and a second proposed agreement between the Illinois Central Railroad and the south park board has been drawn up. The main essentials contemplated in the improvement will stand; that is, the outer harbor development and perhaps the location of the Field Museum on the lake front; but certain other provisions with regard to the proposed contract between the Illinois Central and the south park board may be changed.

Differences of opinion have arisen as to these plans, but the prevailing idea deems to be that expressed in a platform recently promulgated:

> We believe it of paramount importance that the matter be determined in such a way that the future development of the city will not be injured; that the property will not be unnecessarily destroyed, or the value of the same needlessly impaired; that the scant means of access to the South Side will be enlarged rather than cut down; that allowance be made for the commercial as well as the purely industrial development of the city; that an attractive residence district be not further injured; that the proposed park shall be accessible to the people; that the view of the lake and the park be not unnecessarily obstructed; that the railroad be not made an impossible barrier, and that the factors which go to constitute it a nuisance be eliminated as far as possible.

Portland, Oregon, will shortly be the subject of a comprehensive report, both a municipal commission and a Greater Portland plans association being at work on the subject. E. H. Bennett of Chicago is preparing the plans.

Arnold W. Brunner has been retained by Albany, N. Y. to prepare plans for that city.

Los Angeles has had an interesting experience in city planning work. In August, 1910, the council passed a resolution providing for a city planning committee to serve without pay. Having no appropriation to work with it accomplished but very little.

In January, 1912, at a joint meeting of the City Club and the Los Angeles Polytechnic High School Civic Center, a resolution was passed approving the suggestions for carrying out a city plan made by Frederick Law Olmsted, Jr., in an address before the City Club on January 6, and requesting the mayor and council to reorganize the city planning commission to consist of one member each of the park commission, board of public works, harbor commission, municipal art commission, board of public utilities, playgrounds commission, board of public service commissioners, health department, and three citizens not otherwise connected with the city government to be appointed by the mayor.

This resolution also approved Mr. Olmsted's suggestion that not less than $10,000 be appropriated for the work of the commission; and also that the City Club send to the mayor of every city in Los Angeles County contiguous to Los Angeles, a copy of Mr. Olmsted's address with the request that the governing bodies of such cities take active steps in accordance with Mr. Olmsted's suggestions to form a local city planning commission, and that the board of governors of the club take steps to call a meeting of the city planning commissioners of all said cities including Los Angeles for the purpose of organizing a metropolitan planning commission.

In reply to the invitations sent out to the various cities, only one answer has been received, that of Mayor Thum of Pasadena, who endorsed the idea.

Clinton Rogers Woodruff.

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The Chicago Bureau of Public Efficiency.—The Chicago bureau of public efficiency came into existence in August, 1910. It was an indirect outgrowth of the Chicago commission on city expenditures, commonly known as the Merriam commission. This was an official body created by resolution of the city council, and appointed by the mayor. Its membership comprised aldermen and citizens. Mr. Charles E. Merriam, professor of political science in the University of Chicago, then a member of the city council, was chairman. He had introduced the resolution calling the commission into existence. Another important member of the commission was Mr. Walter L. Fisher, now secretary of the interior by appointment of President Taft. Mr. Fisher also acted as counsel for the commission, without compensation.

When the Merriam commission, after about a year and a half of brilliantly successful activity, was about to terminate its labors, it was felt that there should be some unofficial agency to continue the same general lines of work. The Merriam commission, as the creature of the city council, of course confined its investigation to the expenditures of the city government, strictly speaking. The territory comprising Chicago is cursed with a multiplicity of governing bodies, most of which escape the light of publicity that is directed upon the city government. There is the county government, the sanitary district, and several independent park boards. The board of education, the library board and the tuberculosis sanitarium also have separate taxing powers, though their trustees are named by the mayor of the city. It was thought that it would be highly beneficial to have an unofficial body, following in general the methods of the Merriam commission, make studies of the organization, activities and expenditures of all these governing bodies and outline plans for the betterment of the public service.

It was not a very difficult task to secure from public spirited citizens pledges of contributions sufficient to maintain such an agency for two or three years. It was styled the Chicago bureau of public efficiency. The trustees, nine in number, are named by the board of directors of the City Club. The chairman of the board of trustees is Mr. Julius Rosenwald, president of Sears, Roebuck & Company, and prominent in many lines of business and civic activity. The other trustees are Mr. Alfred L. Baker, banker and stock broker, recently chosen president of the City Club; Mr. Onward Bates, engineer; Mr. Clyde M. Carr, president of the J. T. Ryerson & Son Company; Mr. George G. Tunell, an official of the Santa Fé Railroad; Mr. Charles R. Crane, of the Crane Company, at one time president of the Municipal Voters' League; Dr. Henry B. Favill, physician, president of the City Club at the time the bureau was organized; and Mr. Charles E. Merriam and Mr. Walter L. Fisher, already mentioned as prominent in the work of the Merriam commission.

The first director of the bureau was Mr. Herbert R. Sands, formerly connected with the New York bureau of municipal research, who had been brought to Chicago to assist in the work of the Merriam commission. Mr. Sands remained as director until January 1 last, when he resigned the position and returned to take up certain lines of work in the east. Following the retirement of Mr. Sands, Mr. Harris S. Keeler, formerly legal counsel of the bureau was placed in charge of the work as director.

The staff of the Bureau at the present time comprises twelve persons. There is a director, secretary (devoting half time to the work of the bureau), seven accountants and investigators, two stenographers, and an office boy. Very recently the staff has been increased by the employment of two accountants and investigators formerly connected with the Milwaukee bureau of economy and efficiency, which has gone to pieces since the recent change of administration in Milwaukee.

At the outset it was planned to carry on studies of practically all the different governments simultaneously. The work was found so difficult, however, that it was soon deemed advisable not to try to conduct so many lines of activity at once. Consequently, some of the investigations which had been undertaken were discontinued for a while.

During the period of its existence, the bureau has issued fifteen publications. In two instances these publications were of reports prepared by the Merriam commission, for the printing of which the city had failed to make provision. The bureau simply printed these documents as a means of making the material in them available for general public use.

Three reports prepared and published by the bureau were based upon studies made by engineering experts, two relating to street paving and the third to electrolysis of water pipes. These reports attracted favorable comment from engineering magazines. Many of their recommendations were made the basis of action by the city authorities.

The most elaborate report issued by the bureau is that relating to the park governments of Chicago. It represents more than a year's investigation by several members of the staff. Chicago has three large park districts, one in each division of the city, and seven smaller park districts, making ten in all. Each of these park districts constitutes an independent governing body, with its own tax levying powers and its separate board of commissioners. The report was a detailed study of the activities of these bodies. Its most striking conclusion was that $500,000 a year could be saved by the merging of all these park governments with the city, to effect which will require action by the legislature of the state. The hope is expressed that the general assembly to meet next January will make provision for the unification of the park governments of Chicago, as recommended.

One report dealt with the "Proposed purchase of voting machines by the board of election commissioners of the city of Chicago," being a discussion of the specifications and a criticism of some of the features of the proposed contract. Another report was a statement to the voters explaining why two propositions to be submitted to a referendum vote ought to be defeated. The legislature had passed two laws relating to the municipal court of Chicago which, among other things, made substantial advances in the pay of the judges and of the chief clerk and chief bailiff of the court and their assistants. The bureau contended that the salary advances were not warranted. The two laws were rejected by a large majority of the people of Chicago on the referendum vote.

At the present time the bureau is concentrating its attention upon the county government, to the exclusion of practically all other lines of inquiry. Cook County has many administrative officials elected by popular vote, who are to a large degree independent of any central governing authority and responsible only to the people. The result is confusion, absence of fixed responsibility, and lack of coöperation. Such supervisory control as exists is exercised by the board of county commissioners, that makes the appropriations for the salaries and other expenses of the various county officers, and by the judges of the circuit court, who, by a peculiar provision of the Illinois constitution, are empowered to fix the number of employees of the treasurer, sheriff, coroner, recorder of deeds and the clerks of each of the five courts of record of Cook County.

The bureau early began a study of county budget making and in January, 1911, published a report on the *Methods* *of Preparing and Administering the Budget of Cook County.* In this report it was pointed out that the judges, while charged with the duty of fixing the number of employees in certain of the principle county offices, were not provided with funds with which to employ expert assistance to enable them to perform their duty understandingly. It was suggested that the county board should make an appropriation for this purpose. No attention was paid to the recommendation. Later the bureau, in a formal letter to the judges, offered to make an investigation of the county fee offices and to submit reports thereon. This offer was accepted by the judges. The first report submitted was that of the office of recorder, published in September, 1911. The office was found to be remarkably well managed, on the whole. Reports on the offices of coroner, sheriff, and clerks of the circuit and superior courts were submitted to the judges early in December. Attention was called to serious abuses in the coroner's office, which the coroner announced he would proceed at once to correct. In the sheriff's office certain decreases in the staff were recommended and it also was suggested that salaries in some instances were too high. In the reports dealing with the offices of the circuit and superior court clerks, there were suggestions for reorganization, for the introduction of typewriters and other modern devices, and for a reduction in the number of employees.

In the face of these reports, the judges granted requests for more employees in most of the offices. Thereupon the bureau issued a public statement upon "the judges and the county fee offices," in which the judges were sharply criticised. The judges, who resented the criticism passed upon them by the bureau, pleaded that most of the reports were presented too late for consideration. Arrangements are being made for more cordial coöperation this year. The bureau is continuing its investigations with a view of submitting reports on offices not covered last year, and of making supplementaryr ecommendations on offices which were made the subjects of reports last year.

All the officials involved offered the bureau investigators full access to their offices except the county treasurer, who obstructed the work for a time. In October, 1911, the bureau issued a publication dealing with that situation, entitled, *A Plea for Publicity in the Office of County Treasurer.* Since that time the county treasurer has expressed a willingness to coöperate with the bureau and is giving its investigators access to the facilities which they need for the preparation of the report on the office for the judges.

In its studies of these offices the bureau not only makes recommendations within the power of the head of the office to carry out, but also suggests plans for improvement that call for legislative action and the coöperation of other governing agencies.

George C. Sikes.

Chicago.

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Vocational Training.—The City Club of Chicago has published an extensive and valuable report on vocational training in Chicago and other cities. This is the outcome of a study of the problem for over two years, proposed by the club committee on public education in November, 1909, and carried out by the generosity of Mrs. Emmons Blaine. The detailed investigations were made by graduate students in the university of Chicago; and the material thus gathered has been put in form and recommendations formulated by a sub-committee, consisting of Ernest A. Wreidt, William J. Bogan, principal of the Lane Technical High School and George H. Mead, chairman of the the committee on public education. These recommendations were approved by the general committee in June, 1911; but the responsibility for the report rests upon the sub-committee.

After an introduction summarizing the

conclusions and recommendations, the main body of the report deals with the study of industrial and commercial education (below the college grade) in Chicago and a number of other American cities, notably New York, Boston, St. Louis, Cleveland and Cincinnati. This includes both private and public schools, elementary and secondary, industrial and commercial training and trade schools.

The fundamental conclusion urged is that vocational and trade education should be introduced into the school system as an essential part of the educational system and in no illiberal sense. In Chicago, as in other cities, nearly half of the children do not complete the eighth grade in the elementary schools; while investigation showed that those who leave school before completing the elementary course do not retain what has been learned in the lower grades. This is believed to be caused by the elementary curriculum undertaking more than can be accomplished by a large percentage of the children; while those who approach the age of fourteen (the age of compulsory attendance) lose interest in a school which does not appeal to the vocational motive. The report does not recommend any general changes in the existing curriculum; but favored additional opportunities for those not reached by the present methods.

Specific recommendations are for the establishment of a two year vocational school admitting boys and girls at 13 years of age, who have completed six grades in ordinary schools; elementary industrial schools for over-age children below grade seven; optional and vocational courses in grades seven and eight; trade schools for boys and girls; day continuation schools; industrial, technical and trade courses in the high schools; and the establishment of a central high school of commerce.

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City Planning Notes.—Charles K. Mohler has prepared for the committee on traffic and transportation of the City Club of Chicago a preliminary report on passenger subway and elevated railroad development in Chicago. This includes an account of present conditions on both surface and elevated railroads, and a discussion of proposed subway extensions and other improvements. The recapitulation of proposed undertakings is as follows:

	MILES DOUBLE TRACK	COST
Surface car subways........	8.30	$29.740.000
Rapid transit subways.....	11.23	43.030.000
Rapid transit elevated lines	20.30	10.150.000
Total.....................	39.91	$82.920.000

BETTER BINGHAMPTON is a report to the Mercantile Press Club of Binghampton, N. Y., by Charles Mulford Robinson. It is in four parts: the survey, the problem, needs and recommendations and ways and means. The volume is tastefully printed, with numerous illustrations and a good map.

The San Francisco Chamber of Commerce *Journal* for April 1912, has on the title page a plan of the civic centre for that city, for which $8,800,000 of bonds have been voted.

THE GARDEN CITY MOVEMENT is a booklet of seventy pages by G. Montague Harris, giving a brief description of this movement in England, especially of the work of the Garden City Association, and of Bourneville, Port Sunlight and Letchworth as illustrations of the movement.

Bibliographical lists on city planning and municipal improvements have been published within the past few months by the public libraries of Worcester, Mass., and Syracuse, N. Y., and the municipal reference branch of the Milwaukee Wis., public library.

The March, 1912, issue of the *Bulletin* of the New York School of Philanthropy is Library Bulletin No. 5, and is devoted to a list on "Social aspects of town planning." The list is in two parts, general and garden city movement; and each of these is subdivided by countries.

The May issue of *Special Libraries* is devoted entirely to a bibliography of city planning, prepared by the Library of Congress and the landscape department of Harvard University, in coöperation with state and legislative reference libraries.

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New Orleans Civil Service Commission.—The annual report of the Board of Civil service commissioners for the city of New Orleans covering the operations of the board during the year 1911 bears out in all respects the experience of the past as to the small result which follows from a system of examinations which are wholly non-competitive. In 1896 a stringent and comprehensive civil service law providing for the competitive system was enacted, but in 1900 a new law was adopted which effectually removed the "starch" from the system. This law provided for a civil service commission made up of the mayor, the treasurer and the comptroller of the city and two citizens to be appointed by the mayor, who were to hold office during the term of the appointing powers. The examinations were made non-competitive by a provision that the commission in the case of every vacancy should certify a list of all the candidates who passed and the head of department could select anyone he saw fit.

The report of the commission consists of three paragraphs, the first reading "We respectfully submit," etc., and the last "The secretary's report covers the operations of the commission and its expenditures are represented in the tabulated forms." The remaining paragraph contains this cryptic utterance:

> An impartial administration in restraint of lax indulgence in dealing with standards of intelligence, has been maintained and the exercise of the privilege of emergency has not been permitted to enter into the service of the greater responsibilities.

The report of the secretary shows that two examinations were held during the year, in which 40 applicants took part and 35 obtained the required percentage. The "operations of the commission" regarding the labor service of the city are described in the following paragraph, quoted verbatim, from the secretary's report:

> Number of applicants examined for the labor service 00, of which 00 passed; applicants who failed to acquire the required percentage 00; applicants disqualified by operation of law 00, or 00 per cent of those who passed these examinations.

Elliott H. Goodwin.

New York City.

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New York City Pavements.—At the request of a joint committee representing the Chamber of Commerce, the Merchants Association, the Board of Transportation and the Automobile Club of America, Mayor Gaynor appointed in October, 1911, a committee to report on the present condition of the pavements of New York City and to make suggestions for their improvement. The report of this committee, published in March, 1912, is accompanied by a series of reports of sub-committees and appendices, with a considerable number of illustrations showing defects in existing pavements.

The general conclusions of the report are that

> The pavements of the city are and probably always have been very inferior to those of the first-class cities of the old world. . . . . Many of our pavements, and especially those which are much used for heavy trucking, are in a condition injurious alike to the health and economic welfare of the community; they are rough, uneven, often broken and obstructed, expensive to clean and impossible to clean properly; they are inconvenient to use; excessively costly to maintain and are altogether a serious handicap on the property of the city.

After stating the conditions which explain why the pavements are so bad, the report presents a series of recommendations for changes in legislation, organization, contract terms and methods of administration.

Boston Finance Commission.—The annual report of the Boston finance commission includes, in addition to the report proper, a section of official communications, a chronology of the Boston public schools, and a reprint of the report on the Boston school system, which was noted in the April number of the REVIEW.

During the year the commission held 114 meetings and 155 hearings; 31 reports were published, and 21 additional unpublished reports were made. Besides the study of the Boston school system, the most important investigations dealt with civil pensions, the city clerk's department, better fire protection, and street lighting and refuse disposal contracts.

The financial record for the year shows a marked increase in appropriations; and the commission criticizes extravagance in pay rolls and the lack of proper accounting for traveling and other expenses. On the other hand, the borrowing power has been exercised with care and moderation, and the award of contracts shows a marked improvement over the record of Mayor Fitzgerald in his first term.

In reference to the charter amendments of 1909, the finance commission considers that they have worked well and improved many branches of city administration. The effort to reduce the number of signatures required for nominating petitions (5000) is opposed.

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Milwaukee Bureau of Economy and Efficiency.—Since the notice in the January number of the REVIEW, the Milwaukee bureau of economy and efficiency has issued ten additional bulletins on its work. These deal with plumbing and house drain inspection, water works efficiency (three bulletins), garbage collection, health department (three bulletins) and the last presents a summary of the eighteen months work of the bureau.

Appropriations on account of the bureau's work were $5,000 in 1910, $18,000 in 1911, and $15,000 for 1912. In addition, appropriations to city departments to be expended under the guidance of the bureau, have been made for about $12,000. The total expenditures to December 31, 1911, have been $33,096.14.

As to results, the recommendations of the bureau already adopted and installed are saving each year as much as the first year's expenses of the bureau. If all the recommendations are carried out, the total savings are estimated at $150,000 to $200,000 a year. On the other hand the bureau recommends increased expenditure in some directions in order to secure the greatest efficiency. This is notably the case in the health department, where an increase in the force of inspectors is recommended, to cost $32,000 a year.[1]

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Water Supplies.—The annual report of the Pennsylvania state water supply commission for 1909, recently published, discusses public water supplies and water rates, and presents water supply statistics and the laws of Pennsylvania affecting water and water companies.

The bulletin of the Milwaukee bureau of economy and efficiency on water wastes survey reaches the conclusions that all water consumers (private and public) be supplied with meters, that the city maintain or inspect service pipes, that new mains be tested and that the city purchase recording meters.

From the eighth annual report of the Metropolitan Water Board (England), it appears that since the present board took over the water supply of London from the private companies in 1904, a number of additional storage reservoirs have been constructed, more than doubling the storage capacity. In addition to the 62 storage reservoirs, the metropolitan water supply works include 80 service reservoirs for filtered waters, 264 engines and 6,307 miles of water pipes. The metropolitan water district contains over seven million population; and the aggregate water supply for the year 1910-11 averaged 32 gallons per capita. Plans for additional water supply, by the construction of additional reservoirs in the Thames Valley, have been approved, based on an estimated population of 12,000,000 in 1941.

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[1] See page 420.

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City Manuals and Registers.—The reports and publications issued by various municipal authorities have become so numerous and voluminous in most of our larger cities that the ordinary citizen finds it difficult to secure any general view of the municipal government and is apt to become confused by the details of the special reports. A few cities are making some effort to present a summary of general information by the publication of a city manual or municipal register. The *Municipal Register* for the city of Boston contains the rules of the city council, a survey of the city departments and lists of officials. The *Providence City Manual* includes the Mayor's message, lists of city officers and employees, election statistics and financial statements. The *Municipal Register* of Hartford, Conn., is more bulky, containing the Mayor's message, annual reports of the city departments and the city ordinances. The *Year Book* for the city of Charleston, S. C., includes similar information. The *Chicago City Manual* prepared by the city statistician, contains lists of officials and brief accounts of the various city departments with some data on other local authorities.

A comparison of these manuals shows that each of them could be improved in various ways. There is certainly a distinct need for an official publication that will give in a well edited volume of convenient size the more important facts as to the organization and activities of the local government.

* * *

Sanitary Surveys.—Mrs. Caroline Bartlett Crane of Kalamazoo, Mich., has prepared and published a number of reports on sanitary and social conditions in Nashville, Tenn., Erie, Pa., Saginaw, Mich., Rochester, N. Y., and seventeen cities in the state of Minnesota. The Minnesota report is the most comprehensive, including Minneapolis, St. Paul, and Duluth as well as many smaller municipalities; and presenting the results of her investigation in a series of comparative studies on different topics, such as water, sewers, street sanitation, garbage collection and disposal, smoke nuisance, milk supply, meat supply, markets and food factories, hygiene and sanitation of school houses, housing problems, and almshouses and jails.

These surveys have been made at the invitations of local associations and officials. That in Minnesota, on invitation from the state board of health and the Federation of Women's Clubs, with the coöperation of the State Medical Association, the local medical societies, and the commercial clubs of Minnesota, St. Paul and Duluth. In Rochester the survey was undertaken on the invitation of the Women's Educational and Industrial Union, seconded by the mayor and a number of official and unofficial organizations.

* * *

Ohio Tax Commission.—The second annual report of the Ohio tax commission shows some remarkable results from the centralization of the assessment of public utility companies in that state under the tax law of 1910. The assessed valuations of some of the more important classes of such utilities for 1910 and1911 are shown below.

	ASSESSED VALUE	
	1910	1911
Steam railroads	$167,453,818	$571,281,620
Street, suburban and interurban railroads.	32,693,904	123,044,180
Natural gas companies	20,881,531	78,486,270
Electric light companies	6,387,934	29,373,430
Telephone companies..	21,654,529	61,116,110
All public utilities..	$263,191,480	$912,862,833

The assessed value of real estate was also increased from $1,656,944,631 in 1910 to $4,223,138,080 in 1911,—an increase of 154 per cent. The increase in public utility assessments was more than 350 per cent.

⁂

Public Recreation.—The committee on public recreation of the Cleveland Chamber of Commerce has submitted a report to the board of directors, which was approved February 29, 1912. The scope of the committees' work includes playgrounds, parks, dance halls, moving picture shows, pool rooms and other amusement resorts. The report recommends the issue of $1,000,000 in bonds for playground purposes; and the creation of a department of public recreation to administer the municipal undertakings and to inspect and regulate public resorts under private management. An interesting table presents data as to municipal and school playgrounds in twenty-eight United States cities and in Toronto, Canada and Birmingham and Liverpool, England.

⁂

City and County.—The *Proceedings* of the American Political Science Association contain a series of papers on the relations between city and county government in a number of the metropolitan communities in the United States, which were read at the eighth annual meeting held in Buffalo, December 27-30, 1911. The titles of the papers: The City and County in Massachusetts, by O. C. Hormell; The relation of County to City Government in New York; by Arthur Ludington; Cook County and Chicago, by F. D. Bramhall; The Scheme of Separation of City and County Government, in Saint Louis, its History and Purpose, by Truman Post Young; and Consolidated City and County Government of San Francisco, by Percy V. Long.

⁂

Census Statistics.—The bureau of the Census has issued a bulletin on po ulation containing an abstract of population statistics for 1910. In addition to more general data, a number of tables present statistics of urban population, classified according to size. One table dealing with the population of the metropolitan districts emphasizes the importance of the suburbs of large cities. Twenty-five metropolitan districts of over 200,000 population have a total of 22,088,331 inhabitants, nearly twenty-five per cent. of the total population of continental United States. The New York district has a population of 6,474,568; the Chicago district, 2,446,921; the Philadelphia district, 1,972,342; the Boston district, 1,520,470; and the Pittsburgh district, 1,042,855.

⁂

Special Libraries.—The monthly bulletin published by the Special Libraries Asssociation contains many items of interest to students of municipal affairs. In the issues for the past eight months, the following may be noted: September 1911, a short article on the International Municipal Congress and Exposition, held in Chicago; November, 1911, public utilities references; December, 1911, papers on municipal reference libraries and a select list of references on rates charged for public utilities in various cities; January 1912, a list of societies of state municipal and other governmental officials; February, 1912, public utilities references; March, 1912, current references on fire insurance and allied subjects.

⁂

St. Louis Park Report.—The annual report of the park department of St. Louis, Mo., for the year ending April 30, 1911, includes, in addition to the report on parks, the report of the public recreation commission on public playgrounds, public baths and comfort stations. During the year 1911, the aggregate attendance at the twelve public playgrounds was 839,290, nearly double the attendance of three years before. Dwight F. Davis, a member of the council of the National Municipal League, has been appointed one of the park commissioners.

Chicago Organization Charts.—The efficiency division of the civil service commission of the city of Chicago has published a second series of charts of organization, dealing with all departments of the city government as in effect February, 1912. These charts show the various lines of authority and responsibility titles, classification, grades, number and salaries of positions and the total number and compensation of employees assigned to the various departments.

✤

"The Celebration of the Fourth of July by Means of Pageantry" is the title of a volume issued by the division of recreation of the Russell Sage Foundation, with suggestions for future celebrations. It is prepared by William Chauncy Langdon who was master of the pageant at Thetford (see NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, page 76) with an article and notes on the music by Arthur Folwell, the suppervisor of municipal concerts in New York City.

✤

Blue Valley Parkway, Kansas City, Mo.—A special report for the Blue Valley Parkway, Kansas City, Mo., has been prepared by the board of park commissioners. It is designed to show how a naturally beautiful section of the country near Kansas City can be developed both as a thing of beauty and as a means of affording pleasure and recreation to the people. The volume is well illustrated by photogravures and maps.

✤

The Chicago Juvenile Court.—The *Survey* for March 30, 1912, contains a careful statement of the recent effort to undermine the juvenile court of Chicago, under the title Probation and Politics. This includes a summary of the noteworthy report of the committee, headed by Prof. Willard E. Hotchkiss of Northwestern University.

✤

Birmingham, Ala.—The *Survey* for January 6, 1912, is a special Birmingham number, with articles on the spirit of the founders, Birmingham's civic front, water and waste, conservation of health, conservation of childhood, steel workers in the Birmingham district and a cash nexus for crim (discussing the Alabama convict labor system).

✤

The City Club of New York has published an address on "The Australian Ballot System of Massachusetts," by Richard Henry Dana, Esq., of Boston, in which he answers some of the fallacious arguments advanced against the results of its operation in that state.

The Metz fund of the New York bureau of municipal research has issued a series of (12) short talks on municipal accounting and reporting.

REPORTS AND PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

CONSTITUTION AND RULES. Metropolitan Borough Standing Joint Committee. London, England.

SECRETARY'S ANNUAL REPORT OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT ORGANIZATIONS. October 1911.

THIRTY-EIGHTH REPORT OF THE COUNCIL FOR THE YEAR 1911. Association of Municipal Corporations.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE THIRD ANNUAL CONVENTION OF THE CAROLINA MUNICIPAL ASSOCIATION. Held at Raleigh. N. C., in 1911.

REVIEW OF LEGISLATIVE PROCEEDINGS OF SESSION OF 1911. By the joint legislative committee of Direct Legislation League of Washington, State Federation of Labor, Farmers' Union, State Grange, Tacoma.

Annual Report of the Directors of the American Telephone and Telegraph Company, for the year 1910.

The Assessment of Public Service Corporations. Alfred E. Holcomb.

Transit Conditions in Syracuse and Vicinity. New York Public Service Commission, Second District.

Boston City Charter. Charter Tinkering Again. Boston Charter Association, February 1912.

The Consolidated City and County Government of San Francisco. Percy V. Long, city attorney of the city and county of San Francisco.

Sixteenth Annual Report of the Board of City Service Commissioners of the City of Milwaukee.

Rules and Regulations, Civil Service Commissioners Cincinnati. March 1912.

Report of the Central Council of Civic Organizations on Civic Work in St. Louis.

The Inter-relation of Social Movements. Mary E. Richmond, Boston. American Unitarian Association.

Program Summer Session. Chicago School of Civics and Philanthrophy.

Business Management of Muncipalities. By Harvey S. Chase, Alexander Hamilton Institute, New York City.

Municipal Finances in Rhode Island. By George H. Weber, commissioner of industrial statistics.

Annual Report of Financial Transactions of Municipalities and Counties of California, for the Year 1911. A. B. Nye, State Controller.

Budget Estimates, 1912, City of Philadelphia. Prepared by the Bureau of Municipal Research.

Recommendations of the New York City Commission on Congestion of Population.

Boston's Housing Problem. Preliminary Report of a Committee appointed by the Economic Club of Boston.

The Recent Prohibition Movement in the South. W. H. Thomas. Address before the National Municipal League, reprinted from the *Montgomery Journal*, November 16, 1911.

The License Question and its Proper Relation to True Temperance Reform. By Hugh F. Fox, secretary United Brewers Association.

The Fire Waste. Address of Walter L. Fisher before the National Fire Protection Association, 1911.

Thirty-eighth Annual Report of the Board of Public Works, City of Grand Rapids, Mich. Transmitting the Report of the General Manager, etc.

Fortieth Annual Report of the Grand Rapids Public Library.

The Study of a City in the Schools of that City. By John Cotton Dana. Reprinted from the *Pedagogical Seminary*, September, 1911.

Special Investigation Number of the New York State Hospital Bulletin.

Report for the Year 1910 of the Art Commission of the City of New York.

Fortieth Annual Report of the Fairmount Park Art Association. Philadelphia 1912.

Gary, Indiana, America's Magic City, 1906-1912.

CURRENT MUNICIPAL LEGISLATION

EDITED BY JOHN A. LAPP
Legislative Reference Department of the Indiana State Library

I—REVIEW OF CERTAIN FEATURES OF STATE LEGISLATION AFFECTING MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT

Baltimore.—The 1912 session of the Maryland legislature passed several laws relating to Baltimore. One of these laws empowers the city to expend $2,000,000 for extending the underground conduits for wires. Another provides for annual sewerage rates or charges for all houses connected with the sewerage system. These charges are based on the number of stories, the frontage and the fixtures. A charge of 25 cents per front foot is to be imposed upon vacant or unimproved lots. This law, however, does not become effective unless approved by a majority of the voters at the November election, 1912. The charter was amended by giving additional power to the city over the use of streets and sidewalks for signs, poles, planting of trees, etc.

The city is also given the power to establish, own and operate a municipal ferry and to provide by ordinance for abatements of any or all taxes on property used in manufacturing.

Another law which is a very important one, in view of the fact of the extension of the water system, provides a new system for the condemnation of property for municipal purposes. Heretofore, when the city wished to condemn property for public purposes, outside of the city, the proceedings were had before a sheriff's jury but under the new law provision is made for the appointment of appraisers to determine the value of the property to be taken, with the right of appeal to the courts. In case of appeal, however, the trial will be had before a jury of the court and not before a sheriff's jury.

The legislature also passed a law providing for a special tax for improved paving. This tax is so much per front foot on property abutting on streets which have an improved pavement laid at the expense of the city and the amount of the tax is determined by the width of the street. The tax is to be levied for ten years only. At the present time, Baltimore is spending a $5,000,000 loan for improved paving and the special tax is to be added to this fund, in order to make it possible to pave the entire city. As a number of streets have been paved by special assessments, the tax was made applicable to those streets already paved at the public expense and to those streets to be paved out of the $5,000,000 loan. About twenty-five miles will be paved this year.

The proposed charter for Baltimore passed the legislature with several amendments but was vetoed by the governor at the request of the charter commission, which was appointed in 1909. This commission had submitted the charter to the legislature of 1910 but it failed to pass at that time. In this proposed charter, the bicameral council was abolished and a single-branch council consisting of fourteen members was substituted. This was amended in the legislature by increasing the council to twenty-six members, one to be elected from each ward and two at large. The legislature also eliminated the provisions for a non-partisan primary and election and the recall of elective officials. These two amendments had been added by the commission and a citizen committee of fifty and presented to the 1912 session of the legislature. By increasing the membership of the council to twenty-six and eliminating the provisions for non-partisan primaries and elections, the members of the charter commission considered that the legislature had failed to comply with the platform pledges of both political parties and consequently requested the governor to veto the bill. It was also stated that since the charter was not to go into effect until 1915 any way, there was little reason for submitting the charter at this time, since there would be another session of the legislature in 1914. The charter as finally passed and vetoed by the governor, however, contained provisions which many thought were an improvement over the present charter, among the provisions being: The merit system, the substitution of single heads in place of boards for several departments, the introduction of improved business and accounting methods, the increase of the powers of the boards of estimates and awards, etc.

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People's Court, Baltimore.—The magistrate and constable system in Baltimore was as bad as it has been largely because both justices and constables were dependent entirely upon the fee system. Any intelligent measure of reform would, therefore, involve, in the first instance, the substitution of fixed salaries paid by the city for the fees paid by the litigants themselves to officials.

The new people's court consists of five justices of the peace, appointed by the governor of Maryland from among the body of magistrates appointed by him. This device was adopted in analogy to the prevailing system, by which the police magistrates and the magistrates for juvenile causes had already been appointed. The presiding justice of the people's court will receive an annual salary of $2500, and the four associate justices will each receive the same salary. All magistrate cases will either be made returnable before the presiding justice or may be removed by any party to the presiding justice whose duty it is to apportion all cases for trial before himself and the associate justices, in such manner as will best expedite their trial and promote the ends of justice.

All other justices than those of the people's court will receive a salary of $10, and no more, per annum, for the performance of all civil judicial duties. All fees are required to be paid to the chief constable and by him covered into the treasury of Baltimore. As a consequence, all civil justices cases will inevitably be tried in the people's court. The necessity for resorting to these devices arises out of the fact that the constitution of Maryland seems to provide for not less than twenty-four justices of the peace for Baltimore, a considerably greater number than is needed. The payment of adequate salaries to all of those would impose a heavy burden upon the taxpayers. The five justices of the people's court will, it is believed, be able to try all civil magistrate cases.

The minimum number of constables apparently permitted by the constitution, twenty-four, is provided for in the new law; one of these, the chief constable, with a salary of $1800, is constituted the clerk of the people's court. Two assistant constables at salaries of $1200 each compose his office force. Five assistant constables at salaries of $1200 each act as court clerks to the respective justices of the people's court. Five additional assistants receiving $1000 each act as court bailiffs and the remaining eleven assistants at the same salary, serve the processes of the court.

If the arrangement above outlined proves satisfactory, it is believed that it will not be difficult to secure an amendment to the state constitution abolishing the magistrate and constable systems, and permitting the establishment of an effective municipal court. In any event, the new court cannot fail to be a decided improvement over the obsolete system which it succeeds.

Horace E. Flack.

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Weights and Measures Laws — City Sealers.—The general trend of weights and measures legislation seems to be toward a uniformity, although no authorized association has issued a model uniform law on the subject. A system which establishes standards, with conformity to United States standards, and units of weights and measures, provides strict rules and regulations for inspection, defines clearly powers and duties of officials, properly penalizes violation of the provisions, ensures their enforcement, substitutes salaries for the fee system and above all, provides an organization which branches logically from the state officer down to the officer of the small community, leaving, however, the appointing power to state, county, city or town officials as the case may be, roughly summarizes the essentials of a good type of weights and measures law, and one which from the point of view of the work of the city sealer now under consideration would be most advantageous to the public.

The weights and measures laws of 1911 may be grouped into two classes—one, of new laws affecting the whole state system of standards of weights and measures and their inspection; the other, of lesser laws or amendments of already existing statutes. These latter, found in the session laws of Arkansas, Massachusetts, New Hampshire and Utah, consist for the most part in merely strengthening weak places in old laws. In the first group, that of the new state laws, we find enactments in California, Connecticut, Indiana, Maine, Minnesota, Montana, New Jersey and Pennsylvania and such an amendment of the existing code in Wisconsin regarding a state organization as makes practically a new statute. In reviewing these new laws, particularly as they affect the city sealer, it seems unnecessary to dwell on the points included almost universally and which are, generally speaking, similar, such as general duties and powers, penalties, standards and units (these latter are often embodied in a separate law). Attention is given, rather, to the municipal sealer, in his relations with the higher powers, in exceptional points of administration, work, appointment, etc.

These new laws may be separated into two groups—those which attempt to provide a thorough state system, and those which stop far short of the possibilities of the subject. These latter are: California, Maine, Minnesota and Pennsylvania, although in reality, Minnesota should stand apart from either group as its new law is a radical departure from all the other laws, in that the department of weights and measures it creates, is a department of the railroad and warehouse commission, which body appoints the commissioner of weights and measures and controls the department, which, through its chief and its employees, carries on the entire work of inspection in the state doing away entirely with the previously existing system of local officials; $10,000 is appropriated for the work.

In the new California law, there are two distinct weaknesses, from the view point of central control. First, the only direct relation the local sealers, who are appointed by the local governing body, have with the state government, lies in their receipt from the secretary of state, of copies of the state standards which he must test once in two years. Further, the question of salary of the local officer is left entirely to the local government, which is also authorized to fix the fees and charges to be exacted and to disburse the funds collected by the sealers. The Maine law is merely a step in the right direction. It supplements existing laws regarding local inspection of weights and measures by appointing the state commissioner of agriculture to hold also the office of state sealer and giving him power to enforce the statutes controlling county and municipal officers, and to test local standards, but the last duty, unfortunately is required only every ten years. Pennsylvania made the beginnings of a state system by enacting two laws. The first creates a bureau of standards in the department of internal affairs, which tests local standards and requires annual reports from local officers, and the second deals very briefly with the powers and duties of local sealers, providing, among other things, that city sealers are appointed by the mayor and their salaries fixed by ordinance and that the local government bear the expense of local sets of standards.

The group of laws which have been left to the last to review are of comprehensive scope, although varying in detail, with definite connection between the state officer in charge of weights and measures inspection and the local officials. In Connecticut, this state officer is the Superintendent of state police, in Indiana, he is the state food and drug commissioner and all local officers are his deputies, in Montana, he is the secretary of state, in New Jersey, he is a separate officer whom the governor appoints, and in Wisconsin, the office is transferred from the chief of the engineering department of the State University, to the dairy and food commissioner. These officers, by different names, all have similar duties of various sorts, including inspection of state standards, in Connecticut and Indiana once every two years, and in Montana, New Jersey and Wisconsin, once every five years, visits to local sealers, inspection of their work and issuance or regulations for their control in varying degrees—in Montana, the rules and regulations of the state sealer if approved by the governor, have the effect of the law itself. In Indiana and Montana (again with the governor's approval) they have the power of removing inspectors who fail in or neglect their duty, with, in Indiana, the privileges granted to the one so removed of a hearing before the state board of health and an appeal to the circuit or superior court of the county. In all these states, with the exception of Connecticut, reports are required of the city sealers, to be submitted annually in Indiana and Wisconsin to the mayor, monthly in Montana, to the state sealers, and annually in New Jersey to the state superintendent of weights and measure. City sealers, in all these states, are appointed by the local body which appoints officers—in Connecticut the city must be of 25,000 population, otherwise the county sealer has jurisdiction—except in Wisconsin in the case of cities of over 5000 inhabitants where they are appointed by the mayor under civil service rules. In New Jersey, also civil service rules apply to city sealers. Two states make requirements for eligibility for office of sealer, Indiana and New Jersey. In Indiana, the person seeking the office of local sealer must either be in the position at the time the law goes into effect, have had recent experiences in the duties and work of the office, or pass an examination given by the state commissioner. The New Jersey law distinctly states that not only must the state superintendent possess scientific and technical knowledge of the construction and use of weights and measures but that his assistants and local officers must have sufficient scientific knowledge to inspect and report on technical conditions of standards. Salaries of city sealers are determined by the body which appoints them in all five states; in Connecticut, not to exceed $1000; In Indiana from $1500 to $1800 for cities of the first class, and $1200 to $1500 in cities of the second class; in Montana, no limit is placed and the fees collected are divided, 75 per cent to the city and 25 per cent to the state; in New Jersey the salary must not exceed $1500. Each law provides that all weights and measures in the state must be tested at least once every two years except Montana where a yearly inspection is required and a semi-annual test of public weighing machines. In New Jersey every inspector in the state is expressly empowered to weigh commodities in transit. In Montana, peddlers and hawkers must take their scales to a sealer for inspection and this class of merchants are forbidden the use of ice scales. Montana and Wisconsin both give particular attention to standards for milk and cream bottles. The new form of Wisconsin's law does away entirely with county sealers, all inspection except that in cities being carried on from the state office, in this step approaching in a slight degree the new Minnesota law above noted which has only state inspection. Ethel Cleland.

Indianapolis, Ind.

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Taxation Affecting Municipalities.—The constitutions of more than three-quarters of the states require uniform taxation of all property. Because of this limitation few changes in taxation are made that affect municipalities only, and most tax legislation is necessarily of a general character. As a rule, municipal taxes are levied in the same way as taxes in rural districts and for state and county purposes.

The most important recent change in municipal taxation was probably in California where, pursuant to a constitutional amendment ratified in 1910, all operating property of public service corporations is now exempted from local assessment and taxation, and in lieu thereof such corporations now pay a gross earnings tax to the state. This plan follows substantially the Pennsylvania system. The chief reason for the change was the increasing difficulty of assessing public service corporation property, especially when running through many tax districts. Last year the receipts were sufficient to replace the direct state tax heretofore levied on property locally assessed, and this gain offsets, on the average, the loss to local revenues due to the exemption.

The Pennsylvania legislature (1911) abolished the "classification" of real estate in second-class cities (Pittsburgh and Scranton), under which undeveloped real estate within the city limits had been classified as agricultural and paid only one-half the city rate. In Pittsburgh this system had resulted in gross abuses, land being kept as pasture near the heart of the city and profiting by this low tax rate as well as under-assessment; while the added burden fell upon the owners of improved property assessed at full city rate, and especially upon the small home-owners. Another injustice was abolished at the same time. Pittsburgh had been divided into school districts, each of which paid the entire cost of the schools within its boundaries. Thus the districts with small homes and many children paid a very high rate, while in the business sections, with few children and high values, made largely by the expenditures of the people in the small homes, the rate was trifling. Now there is a uniform rate for schools throughout the city.

Ohio enacted (1911) a tax limit law, whereby the maximum rate in any district may not exceed ten mills ($1.00 on the $100) for all purposes (state, county, school, township and municipal) except interest and sinking fund, and the city rate cannot exceed five mills. The total rate may be increased by a vote of the people but not to exceed 15 mills. There is complaint from some districts that their revenue is insufficient and opinions regarding the success of the law vary.

Massachusetts adopted (1911) a constitutional amendment permitting "excess condemnation," under which cities are authorized in connection with opening streets or parks, to condemn adjoining land sufficient for building lots which can then be leased or sold. The purpose is two-fold—to enable cities to recoup some of the expense of public improvements by securing the added value which such improvements give to abutting land; and to give control over the character of buildings to be erected opposite a park or along a thoroughfare.

In Canada there have been notable changes in municipal taxation. For several years British Columbia has required, by general law, that land should be assessed at full value while buildings should not be assessed for taxation at more than 50 per cent of their value, and has provided that city councils might reduce the percentage as they saw fit. Vancouver reduced the percentage to 25 and finally exempted improvements entirely two years ago.

In the province of Alberta cities and villages have, for some years, been empowered to exempt personal property and improvements from taxation.

At the last session of the legislature this exemption was made compulsory in rural municipalities, villages and towns, and hereafter all local taxes must be levied on the value of land only, there being no tax upon personal property, improvements or business. Cities are governed by special charters and are not affected by these amendments. Most of the cities have a similar system, raising their revenues from taxes on land values, franchises, and business taxes based on area of premises occupied.

A. C. Pleydell.[1]

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City Forestry.—The science of forestry is nowhere better illustrated than in the progressive care which many cities are taking of the trees within the limits of the public ways and places and the advice and assistance to private owners in the development of tree planting and care.

Scores of cities have adopted ordinances prohibiting mutilation of trees on the streets and providing for their scientific care by expert foresters. State legislatures have given permissive legislation and have also passed direct regulatory measures.

New Jersey has done more perhaps than any other state in this line. A model shade tree law was passed in 1893 and under it, shade tree commissions have been established in several of its cities. Not all have secured the best results but some, notably Newark have succeeded in permanently beautifying their cities. So widespread was the interest in that state that a permanent association of shade tree commissioners was formed in 1910.

Massachusetts' cities have also been active in municipal forestry work and Springfield, Fitchburg and Boston have regular foresters. Buffalo, N. Y.; Cleveland, Ohio; Pittsburg and Philadelphia, Pa.; Detroit, Saginaw and Grand Rapids, Mich.; New Orleans, La.; Providence, R. I.; St. Louis, Mo.; Milwaukee, Wis.; Minneapolis and St. Paul, Minn.; Jamestown, N. Y.; Manhattan, Kansas; Chicago, Ill.; and the village of Glen Ellyn; Denver and Colorado Springs, Colorado, and Oklahoma City have done much through their city foresters or park boards to care for forestry development.

An interesting and significant move has been made recently by the state department of agriculture of Texas to interest the cities of that state in the care of trees. A deputy commissioner is visiting the cities and urging their coöperation with the state department in that direction and the work to be developed is expected to be done partly by the state board. This will enable all cities large and small to avail themselves of the best service at small cost. The state forestry departments of other states and the national forestry bureau are also aiding the movement by means of educational literature and advice.

The chief limitation to the foresters has been the lack of sufficient funds to accomplish results, the appropriation being often so small as to limit the foresters' work to advisory and educational activity.

Typical of the powers granted to shade tree commissions and city foresters is that found in Newark, although most cities have not so much latitude.

The Newark shade tree commission which consists of three free holders who serve without compensation is given "exclusive and absolute control and power to plant, set out, maintain, protect and care for shade trees in any of the public highways." The commission is also given control of the public parks. Trees are planted on the streets by order of the commission after a public conference and hearing. The streets to be planted are chosen and the places for trees marked. Notice is given to abutters and suggestions of changes are heard. The cost of the planting is paid by special assessment on the real estate abutting the improvement. Only the actual cost is assessed.

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[1] Secretary New York Taft Reform Association.

On request the commission plants trees for private owners and collects the cost by bill.

The commission takes care of all trees planted on the highways, watching, spraying, training, watering and replacing. Tree planting and trimming are prohibited without the permission of the commission to insure systematic development.

Another service which city foresters are called upon to do is the prevention and eradication of tree pests. The Massachusetts' cities have generally combined the duties of preventing the gypsy and brown-tail moth with the work of the forester. The thousands of pests which prey upon the trees make this an essential part of the work.

The development of city forestry is just in its infancy but it is certain to increase with the increasing appreciation of civic beauty. Cities have hardly realized yet the possibilities of beauty which the systematic cultivation of trees throughout its limits will give. The city subjects the trees to unnatural strains upon their life and these must be counteracted by tree care and prohibitory legislation.

The Newark shade tree commission says of the necessity for municipal control:

> Adequate municipal control secures for the tree expert planting, pruning, mulching, spraying, etc. Take the operations of pruning and spraying. When these have been left to private initiative, they have either been entirely neglected, or the operation so inexpertly performed (in many cases) as to result in the ruin of the tree. It is pitiful—the trees that have been done for forever by unskilled pruning and spraying. In a word, the treatment of trees is an expert profession; private initiative, as a rule, ignores that vital fact; intelligent municipal control accepts the fact and acts upon it.

⁂

Traffic Rules.—The board of public works for the city of Manchester, N. H., has established an extensive and detailed code of traffic rules which took effect May 13, though without penalty in the event of violation until June 17. Whether traffic can be so minutely regulated as is attempted, remains to be seen. The regulations are adopted by authority of section 2, chapter 359, laws 1911 (which chapter created the board) wherein it is provided that:

> The board shall have full charge, supervision, management and control of the building, constructing, repairing and maintaining of all highways . . . . they shall have the power to regulate the traffic and travel upon, the placing of incumbrances in, and the moving of buildings through the highways of said city. . . . . The board shall make such rules and regulations governing the conduct of the business contemplated under this act as they may deem expedient, and they shall, for the carrying out of the purposes of this act, have all the powers now by law vested in the board of street and park commissioners, and the various city departments and officials of said city now having control of the matters covered by this act.

⁂

Ohio Referendum.—Last winter the Ohio legislature passed the Crosser initiative and referendum law which vests in 15 per cent of the electorate power to hold up legislation. Under the provision of this law an ordinance of the city of Akron is being held up for a vote by the people until next November. Commenting upon this a local newspaper says that "We have no quarrel with the referendum principle as embodied in the Crosser law. It might work out well if there was provision for immediate decisions of debatable questions. But any law which places in the hands of 15 per cent of an electorate the power to hold up legislation for almost a year and perhaps nullify the will of the people is logically out of place on the statute books. The bill may be entirely legal and capable of enforcement yet the law makes it possible for a public service corporation by securing sufficient signatures to a referendum petition to hold up a desirable reform for months." Another newspaper points out "that immediate decisions of questions held up by referendum would involve almost constant elections and entail upon the community a bankrupting expense."

*

Norfolk, Va.—City council by virtue of authority granted by a recent act of legislature has reduced the number of councilmen from 64 to 40 and redistricted the city into five wards instead of ten as at present. The council first attempted to make a still smaller council and passed an ordinance fixing the number at twenty-five allowing a salary. The mayor disapproved the measure and the number was fixed at forty without pay.[1]

JUVENILE COURTS

Delaware, Wilmington—Juvenile Courts.—By an act of April 4, 1911, the legislature of Delaware created a juvenile court for the city of Wilmington. The court is given sole and exclusive jurisdiction in all cases relating to delinquent, dependent or neglected male children seventeen years or under, and female children eighteen years of age or under. The judge of the court is appointed by the governor for a term of 4 years. The chief probation officer is appointed by the judges of the superior court and receives an annual salary of $1000. Volunteer probation officers, men or women, are appointed by the Judge of the juvenile court, and serve without pay. The duties of the probation officers are confined to the investigation of cases, procuring and collation of information and the general charge of juvenile offenders. Any reputable resident of Wilmington is authorized to report ascertained delinquencies. The general public so far as lawful are excluded from the hearing. The incarceration of any child under 14 years of age in a jail or police station is forbidden. The court is authorized to place juvenile offenders in their own homes under custody of a probation officer, or in a suitable family, or remand them to any institution for the care of children. A board of visitation, appointed by the judge of the juvenile court, who serve without pay are required to visit and inspect each detention institution once annually.[2]

Indiana.—By an act approved March 2, 1911, the time for electing the judge of the juvenile court of Marion County was changed, and fixed to be held in November, 1914 and 1918, and every four years thereafter.[3]

*

Tennessee, Hamilton County (**containing Chattanooga**).—An act approved March 28, 1911, created a juvenile court for Hamilton County, held by the judge of the city court of Chattanooga for which he received no additional compensation. This court is given exclusive jurisdiction in the enforcement of laws regulating the conduct of delinquent children, under sixteen years of age, and contribution delinquency of adults. Probation officers are appointed by the judge and their duties are confined to the service of warrants, custody, detention and supervision of juvenile offenders, who must while awaiting a hearing be separately confined. The disciplinary destination of proved delinquents include, the criminal court, industrial schools, reformatory, reputable private family, homes of offenders.[4]

*

Tennessee, Knox County (**containing city of Knoxville**).—The juvenile court of Knox County was created by an act approved July 3, 1911. The court is presided over by the recorder of the city of Knoxville who serves without compensation. The judge *pro tem.* is appointed by the governor and ultimately elected by the qualified voters of Knox County for the constitutional period. The clerk is appointed by the judge and serves without pay. The regular probation officers, one man and one woman, who each receive a salary of $60 per month and the assistant probation officers, who serve without compensation, are appointed by the judge and their duties include the service of citations, custody, detention and supervision of delinquents and dependents.

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[1] Robert E. Steed, City Clerk. Norfolk.

[2] 1911, p. 709.

[3] 1911, p. 139.

[4] 1911, p. 488.

The court exercises original and exclusive jurisdiction over all matters involving dependent or delinquent children under sixteen years of age. Formal citation proceeds on the presentation of information respecting the unlawful irregularities of any juvenile offender by any reputable person possessing such knowledge. The sentence of the court may embrace the imposition of a fine, commission to the workhouse, house of detention or industrial school apprenticeship in a reputable family or surrender of jurisdiction to the criminal court. An appeal is made to lie to the circuit court. Confinement in the county jail or lockup is forbidden; separate places of detention for white and colored offenders is required. The judge is required to inspect all detention institutions annually.[1]

*

New York, Buffalo.—An act of July 14, 1911, revised the charter of Buffalo by providing for the establishment of the children's court. The judge is elected for a term of ten years, any resident elector of Buffalo being eligible, and removable by the appellate division of the supreme court, his compensation being fixed by the common council. The clerk is appointed by the judge. The jurisdiction of the court is made to extend to all cases involving delinquency of persons sixteen years of age and under and his concurrent jurisdiction to the contributory delinquency of adults. The court is divided into two parts, one the children's court, the other for the trial of adults. No child may be detained longer than thirty days, nor under any circumstances taken to the police station. The judge is required to appoint at least three probation officers, one of whom must be a woman, their compensation being provided by the common council. Children may be adjudged in need of care and protection or subjected to merited punishment. The city is required to provide a detention home presided over by a superintendent.

*

New York, New York City.—New York, by a law approved July 20, 1911, amended a previous act relating to the subject of juvenile delinquency by providing that in the arraignment of children the officer having the child in charge is required to notify the parent, guardian or custodian of the child. The clause of the law making it unlawful to take a child to any police station for temporary detention was omitted.[2]

*

Wisconsin, Beloit.—On June 19, 1905, the legislature of Wisconsin created a municipal court in the city of Beloit and defined its powers and jurisdiction. On May 10, 1911,[3] the legislature gave this court concurrent jurisdiction with the county court over applications for the commitment of dependent children to the state public school at Sparta.[4]

*

Municipal Court of Cleveland, Ohio.—The law creating a municipal court in Cleveland was amended in numerous particulars by an act[5] of the last general assembly. The court now consists of seven judges, one of whom is a chief justice, elected by the people for a term of four years.

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[1] 1911, p. 1569.

[2] 1911, p. 1729.

[3] 1911, p. 1944.

[4] Charles Kettleborough.

[5] 1911, p 120.

The court has original jurisdiction in civil cases within the city limits as follows:

1. In all actions in which justices of the peace have jurisdiction.
2. In all actions under $1000 in which courts of common pleas have jurisdiction.
3. In all actions or contracts not to exceed $25,000.
4. In all actions to enforce the collections of the court's own judgments.
5. In all actions for the sale of personal property under mortgage.
6. In all actions for the sale of real estate under liens.
7. In all actions in the nature of creditors' bills in aid of execution.
8. In all actions in the nature of interpleader.

The court has appellate civil jurisdiction in all actions from a court of a justice of the peace, both in the city of Cleveland and in the county. The court, also, has jurisdiction in every ancillary and supplemental proceeding, now conferred upon the court of common pleas and justice of the peace. Jurisdiction of all misdemeanors and of all violations of city ordinances is likewise vested in the court.

In civil actions, if a jury is demanded, it is composed of six men, unless a smaller number is agreed upon, or a full quota of twelve is demanded. In criminal cases, the jury is to be composed of the twelve men. The solicitor of the city of Cleveland is the prosecuting attorney for the court. Provision is also made for probation officers, clerk, bailiff and other officials.

By terms of the act, the police court of Cleveland and all its officials cease to exist after January 1, 1912.

Charles Wells Reeder.

EVENTS AND PERSONALIA

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I. STRUCTURE OF GOVERNMENT

Home Rule for Ohio Cities.—The constitutional convention of Ohio has submitted to the voters of the state probably the most radical home rule provisions of any of the eight or nine states which have thus far granted local autonomy to municipalities. The proposal, as it passed the convention on May 27, was not in the form originally submitted by the conference of Ohio Cities, and the friends of home rule will await with some anxiety the first decisions of the courts, if the amendment is adopted at the special election to be held in September. As the amendment is now worded, there is a possibility of an ultra-conservative court holding that all charters and ordinances adopted by a city under the home rule provisions will be subjected to any general law which the Legislature may wish to pass.

The advocates of the proposal sought to give the cities all powers of local self government subject only to such laws as affected the welfare of the state as a whole. The Anti-Saloon League insisted that the provisions should make impossible local control of the liquor traffic. In the fight to secure these changes, the extent of local autonomy was considerably curtailed, or at least its extent will be in doubt until the courts have rendered a decision on the general principles involved.

The proposed amendment is much longer and more detailed than was originally intended, and consists of fourteen sections which are in brief as follows:—

1. Municipal corporations are divided into cities and villages; those having a population of 5000 or more are cities; all others are villages.

2. The city or village may determine the form of its government in either of three ways:

(a) A municipality may adopt its own charter by electing a commission of fifteen to frame the charter and submit it to the people for ratification.

(b) The legislature may pass a general or special act which a city or village may adopt by a majority vote.

(c) The legislature shall by general law provide for the government of cities—laws which will automatically take effect in all cities or villages which do not take steps to secure their own charters in the manner indicated above in "a.' and "b".

3. Under any form of municipal government "municipalities shall have authority to exercise all powers of local self-government and to adopt and enforce within their limits such local police, sanitary and other regulations as are not in conflict with general laws."

4. Municipalities may acquire, construct, own, lease, operate public utilities and may issue mortgage bonds therefore beyond the general limit of bonded indebtedness prescribed by law, but such mortgage bonds shall be a lien onlyon the property and revenues of the public utility itself.

5. Municipalities may exercise the right of excess condemnation in appropriating property, provided the bonds issued to pay for such excess shall be a lien only upon the property acquired for the improvement and the excess.

6. The general assembly is given authority to limit the power of municipalities to levy taxes and incur debts for local purposes; to require uniform reports from cities as to their financial condition; and to provide for the examination of the accounts of all municipalities or of public utilities operated by the municipality.

If the amendment is adopted it will take effect on January 1, 1913. In all probability, steps will be immediately taken by a number of the cities to elect a charter commission to frame new charters. In the meantime, the Ohio Municipal League will begin the preparation of measures to be submitted to the legislature which convenes in January.

The opposition to the home rule proposal came chiefly from the anti-saloon or "dry" forces in the convention, and the public utility corporations. The corporations claimed that the provisions were wholly unfair to existing private companies because they made it possible for a municipality to enter into competition with a privately owned plant, and after depreciating its value by unequal competition, to condemn such plant and take it over at its depreciated value. This argument for a time had some weight with the convention, but when an amendment was submitted by the public utility interests which would have practically nullified the municipal ownership provisions, the convention rejected it by a large majority and refused to consider any further compromise.

Municipal home rule in Ohio six months ago was a hazy, indefinite desire on the part of the cities. It is now embodied in a definite, concrete, constitutional amendment, supported by practically every city and newspaper in the state. Its adoption in September is assured if any of the other forty-two amendments are accepted by the people.

Mayo Fesler.

*

New Home Rule Charters in Minnesota.—Several Minnesota cities have recently framed or are engaged in framing new charters, among these are St. Paul, Minneapolis, Anoka, St. Cloud, and Glenwood.

The St. Paul charter commission has completed its work, but will not formally submit the proposed charter to the mayor until after the city election in May. If the charter were submitted now it would have to be voted upon at the regular city election when its defeat would be almost a certainty, since four-sevenths of all those voting at that election would have to vote for the charter in order to secure its adoption, though not a single ballot were cast against it. If the charter is submitted at a special election it stands a better chance of adoption.

Under the charter of 1900 the mayor had the power to appoint practically all the heads of departments, but not the power of removal. To prevent a new mayor from raiding the departments and appointing his henchmen, the departments were placed in charge of boards. For example, police, fire, water, parks and workhouse, were under the control of five boards of five members each, serving for five years, one member retiring each year. The board of public works and control had three members each; the school board, seven; the library; nine; (appointed by the District Court), and equalization, eleven. The mayor could appoint only one new member each year and since the mayor's term was two years he could not secure a favorable majority on any of these boards, unless he secured a reëlection, excepting only public works and control of which he could gain the majority in his second year. Having no power of removal the mayor had little power of controlling the departments, beyond calling the presidents of the boards to a monthly conference, asking for reports and giving advice and admonition. The departments were also independent of the council, excepting that the maximum sum appropriated each year was fixed by that body. Since the charter stated exactly the maximum sum which could be spent by each board annually, the council could do little more than appropriate that sum. When the maximum became inadequate, as it did within three or four years after the adoption of the charter, amendments were secured raising each sum slightly. Finally tiring of these recurring home rule amendments, the legislature was induced to abolish the limitations entirely in 1909. Of course these financial limitations, absurd as they may seem, were a necessary part of a system of administration.

which so completely scattered power and concealed responsibility.

The proposed charter retains the bicameral council, the upper house consisting of nine members elected at large every second year, the lower consisting of twelve aldermen from as many wards chosen at the same time and for the same term. The administrative system is altered materially. A single commissioner is placed in charge of police, fire, health and public works; boards are retained for parks, water, schools, libraries, and some minor services. The mayor appoints and may remove these heads of departments, and all others, including city engineer, treasurer, and purchasing agent. The subordinates in all departments ranking below the heads and deputy heads, excepting all employed in the legal department, and teachers and school officers are placed under civil service rules.

In place of the former lump sum limitations upon the expenditures of the departments, there is a percentage limitation on the amount that can be raised by taxation for each purpose. There is also a budget committee composed of the mayor, comptroller, president of the common council, president of the assembly, and president of the board of aldermen. The majority of the budget committee are therefore not connected with the administrative departments, and of course are not responsible for results in doing the work of the city.

The powers of the city council are all itemized in detail but much more logically and systematically stated than in the old charter. The council is expressly given authority to regulate the rates of all public service companies holding franchises from the city. An annual license tax equal to 5 per cent of the gross earnings is imposed upon all such companies within the city. The recall of all elective officers, excepting municipal justices and constable is provided for on petition of 20 per cent of the total vote cast for the office in question.

There is a compulsory referendum on all grants or renewals of franchises and on certain bond issues. There is no power of initiative granted beyond that allowed by the constitution in securing new charters or amendments.

The Minneapolis charter commission has agreed to the initiative, referendum, recall and civil service provisions. The municipal court is to remain as at present. The commission is at present working on the following report of a plan of organization of government presented by Prof. W. A. Schaper, a member of the commission.

I

The council should be retained but there should be only one alderman from a ward. The whole number should not be less than eighteen. There are two ways of selecting the additional five aldermen: Plan I. The ward lines may be rearranged so as to create five additional wards; or, Plan II, the five aldermen may be elected at large. Which alternative we select will depend on how many other officials are to be elected at large and what their functions are to be. The present method of conducting a large part of the department business of the city through the committees of the council should be discontinued and the council should have legislative functions only.

II

In place of the present illogical and cumbersome administrative organization of the city, I suggest that there be established seven departments, somewhat as follows:

1. Department of city records
2. Department of law
3. Department of health and hospitals
   Under this department should be placed all the health and hospital work of the city, organized into proper branches with a subordinate officer in charge
   (a) The city hospital
   (b) Hopewell hospital
   (c) Quarantine hospital
   (d) The case of the poor
   (e) Garbage collections (may be transferred to public works)
   (f) Inspection services
   (g) City bacteriologist and all other health activities of the city
4. Department of public works (or the city engineer)

This department should have charge of all the engineering work of the city, embracing under proper subdivisions:
  - (a) Streets, sidewalks, and bridges (abolishing the thirteen street commissioners)
  - (b) The city sewers
  - (c) The city waterworks

5. Department of Finance (or city comptroller)
   Under this department should come three subdivisions:
   - (a) Office of city accountant
   - (b) Office of city treasurer
   - (c) Office of city assessor
6. Department of public safety
   This should embrace:
   - (a) The city police
   - (b) The city firemen
   - (c) The city building inspector
   - (d) License inspector, etc.
   - (e) Workhouse
7. Department of parks and public grounds.
   Here should be grouped all the activities of the present park board.

III

The heads of these departments may be selected by one of two plans:

Plan I, by electing five of them at large

1. The mayor, head of the department of public safety
2. The controller, head of the department of finance
3. The city engineer, head of the department of public works
4. The commissioner of health, head of the department of health and hospitals
5. The commissioner of parks, head of the department of parks and public grounds

   and appointing the remaining two:

6. City attorney, and
7. City clerk, by the city council on nomination of the "conference committee"—the mayor's board

Plan II provides for the election of only two of these heads of departments by the people:

1. The mayor, head of the department of public safety
2. The city controller, head of the department of finance, and the appointment of the remaining five by the mayor.
3. The city engineer, head of the department of public works
4. The commissioner of health, head of the department of health and hospitals
5. The commissioner of parks, head of department of parks and public grounds
6. The city attorney, with the approval of the council
7. The city clerk, with the approval of the council

The next most important change in the present system is to introduce a proper correlation between these departments. This can be done by providing that there shall be an administrative board, or commission, called perhaps "the conference committee," consisting of the heads of the five leading departments of the city government, with the mayor as chairman, the city attorney as its legal adviser, and the city clerk as its secretary, the three other officers being the city controller, the commissioner of public works, commissioner of health and hospitals, and the commissioner of parks and public grounds.

The conference committee should be entrusted with the general conduct of the city's business including:

- (a) Letting of contracts
- (b) Acquiring lands except for school purposes
- (c) Proposing the annual budget
- (d) Making appointments within the departments on recommendation of the head of the department in accordance with civil service rules.
- (e) Making reports and recommendations as to change in ordinances.
- (f) Transacting all business in open daily meetings and keeping a record of all transactions to be reported to the city council at the following meeting

V

The most important change of all and the most needed one is a proper correlation of the city departments with the legislative body, the city council. It is proposed to require the mayor and the four other heads of leading departments composing the conference committee to attend all council meetings; to take part in the discussions (but to have no right to vote); to prepare the annual budget for the city council (subject to the action of the board of tax levy); to make reports and recommendations when called for and to answer all questions asked of them by members of the council relating to the conduct of the city's business in any department. The city attorney will attend these meetings as legal adviser, and the city clerk, will of course, act as the secretary of the council.

By this plan complete articulation is assured, first among the departments, through the daily meetings of the conference committee, and between the departments and the city council through the bi-weekly meetings of the council. It provides for a complete centralization of authority for the doing of the city's business, a large representative council to the people to make the ordinances, vote the taxes, appropriate money, decide all the important policies of the city after hearing the expert and responsible heads of departments discuss the questions in open council meeting and after public hearings; it provides a joint financial plan for the city and county through the present board of tax levy.

The board of tax levy which fixes the maximum rate of taxation for city and county purposes is in many respects the best feature of the present system. In fact the principle of coördination established by that board in framing the budget is the one which forms the basis of this new plan. The board of tax levy consists of the chairman of the board of county commissioners; the county auditor representing Hennepin County; the mayor, city controller, president of the park board, president of the school board and chairman of the ways and means committee of the council. This is in fact a joint city and county conference committee composed of important heads of departments, meeting once a year to determine the budget for city and county purposes and make their recommendations to the council and county board. It is now proposed to extend the principle of this scheme and adopt it to the conduct of all the important business of the city. The plan proposed is a logical outgrowth of the board of tax levy which saved the present chaotic administrative system from complete paralysis and enabled the city to get along as well as it has.

There is one other principle that has been taken from the present system in planning the proposed new frame of government. It is found in the organization of the present police department. The mayor is the responsible head of the police department under the present charter. The chief of police is the working expert head in actual charge of the police work. The mayor is elected by the voters of the whole city. He is responsible politically to the people for the policy carried out in police matters.

In a similar way, if the first alternative of the proposed plan of electing department heads is adopted there will be a responsible manager for each of the other four great departments of the city, finance, health and hospitals, public works, and parks, elected by the voters. Under each general manager will be the real working permanent head of the department in direct charge of the work.

I claim that the proposed scheme contains all the strong points in the commission plan and none of its faults and presents all the really sound features of our present plan.

I should state that the proposed new school and library board is not included here. It would be proper to provide that the president of the joint school and library board should be permitted to sit on the mayor's conference committee while the annual budget is being considered.

The only other city authority not covered is the proposed civil service commission which should be independent of the regular administrative system of the city. There are of course some minor offices like the gas inspector, city weigher, city statistician, and others that are not mentioned. These, it is understood, can be easily allotted to their proper departments.[1]

Two events have occurred since the last issue of the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW which will make a material change in the charter situation in this state. On May 7th St. Paul adopted the commission plan of government by a vote of 20,640 to 4137, and on May 17 the supreme court handed down a decision in *State vs. City of Mankato*, holding that the charter of the city and the act of 1909 which, in express terms, permits cities to adopt the "commission plan," are constitutional.

For the past two years a charter commission appointed by the district court, under the home rule provision, has been engaged in drafting a new charter for St. Paul. The commission completed and published a draft on the federal plan retaining the existing bicameral council, but introducing the merit system, initiative, referendum and recall, the non-partisan ballot and centralising the administration in the mayor. The charter commission decided not to risk submission, preferring to wait until the city election was over, when a special charter election could be secured.

This delay gave the enthusiasts for the commission plan their opportunity. Through the Current Topics Club a draft of a charter on the commission plan had been prepared. This was submitted as an amendment to the existing charter on petition of 10 per cent of the voters to take effect in 1914. Such an amendment requires the approval of three-fifths of the qualified voters participating in the elections to carry. There were two other very popular amendments submitted at the same time. Number 1 authorizes the payment of special assessment taxes in five to ten annual installments; number 2 permits the city to undertake certain street work itself instead of letting it out by contract; number 3 establishes the commission plan.

William A. Schaper.

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St. Paul and Real Home Rule.—At the last session of the legislature a constitutional amendment was submitted to the voters of the state and will be voted upon next autumn giving a majority of the voters a right to adopt a new charter or to amend the old. Many Minnesota cities are interested and none opposed, so that the amendment is likely to be ratified. It gives broader powers to the fifteen freeholders appointed by the courts, who make up the charter commission, and authorizes any form of government for a city of the state that does not violate the constitution. At the present time the requirement of the Minnesota constitution that a city charter must provide for an elective mayor and a city council is held by some technical lawyers to invalidate the commission plan charters of the state. In St. Paul the charter commission is working rapidly upon a new home rule charter on the federal plan. The mayor is to have large appointing power and may remove at pleasure; and there are to be a bicameral council, several boards and three administrative commissioners.

*

Municipal Home Rule in New York.—An important movement for municipal home rule has been undertaken in New York state by the newly formed Municipal Government Association of which Mayor John K. Sague, of Poughkeepsie, is president. The purpose is to unite the efforts of all city and village associations and groups that are advocating home rule. The commission government movement, which has been thoroughly organized in a number of cities, has pooled issues with the Association. Wherever there is a strong civic organization in a city or village, it has been invited to affiliate. Agents are now making trips through the state, doing organization work, and delegations from all sections will visit the Republican and Democratic party conventions in September to urge the adoption of adequate home rule planks in the party platforms.

In a memorial to the Third Annual Convention of Mayors of the State of New York held at Utica in the middle of June, The Municipal Government Association advocated the following program:

1. *Protection in the constitution of a field of unmolested local self-government.* This amendment should change the existing legal presumption against the powers of city governments, by declaring that cities and villages are granted full power of local self-government, and that no enumeration of specific power shall exclude powers coming with this general grant. To this should be added the ability on the part of a city to make its own charter or form of organization.

2. *Municipal empowering act.* There must be a broad general expansion of power granted to city governments in order to enable them to meet their growing problems.

3. *Municipal organization act.* For the purpose of securing governmental organizations which will more efficiently and responsibly exercise these powers, cities should have the option of choosing

by referendum vote among a number of simplified forms of city organization.

These principles may be embodied in a number of forms or types, including a mayor and council plan and a commission form, which should be provided in a general municipal organization act. The details of each such form should be left in the control of the commission, board of directors, or legislative body under the form adopted by any particular city.

These two acts would cut in two the number of times a city has to go to the legislature for needed power or for charter amendments.

4. *Non-partisan municipal elections act.* Such an act should provide for the election of municipal officers, without the use of national party names or emblems, permitting cities more nearly to determine city elections on city issues.

5. *Uniform municipal reporting act.* In place of hard and fast limitations on the power of city governments, we urge that every city of a class be required to report its financial transactions on uniform schedules. Costs should be reduced to units so that a citizen of any city could compare with other similar cities the cost of a yard of pavement, of a street light, of the collection of a ton of garbage, etc. J. O. Hamitt.

⁂

Proposed Changes in Denver Charter.—Early last year two committees took up the question of adopting commission government in Denver. One of these, appointed by the chamber of commerce, divided equally in making its recommendations; and the chamber, by a vote of 437 to 321, endorsed the mayor form with some modifications. The other committee, representing the Direct Legislation League of Colorado and thirteen other organizations, reported in October an amendment which would fundamentally alter the existing charter. The amendment provided for non-partisan nominations by petition, nine elective officers (five being commissioners), preferential voting, the extension of the classified civil service to cover all subordinate offices, and the initiative, referendum and recall. A petition for its submission to the people at a special election was signed by nearly 20,000 voters, or 12,000 more than required for the purpose under the state constitution. On December 11, however, the board of aldermen refused to call a special election. Their action was based upon the opinion of City Attorney Lindsley that the amendment must be submitted as eleven separate amendments or that a charter convention should be called in view of the fundamental character of the changes proposed. Legal proceedings were then begun; first the district court issued a writ of mandamus compelling the council to call an election and then an appeal against the order was taken to the supreme court. Meanwhile other petitions were circulated. The Republican organization secured the requisite number of signatures for the submission of six charter amendments enlarging the powers of the mayor, reducing the number of elective officers and substituting for the bi-cameral council a body of seven elected at large. On January 9 the board of supervisors passed an ordinance calling a special election to vote upon these amendments.

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Pueblo, Colorado, New Charter.—The proposed new charter for Pueblo voted upon last September, contains some unusual civil service provisions. The charter provides for a government along commission lines, a council consisting of five commissioners elected for two years. The section dealing with the civil service provides for a civil service commission to be elected at large in the same way as the members of the council and for a classification of all the employees of the city departments, including the chiefs of the departments; and empowers the commission to appoint a city comptroller by a majority vote and remove him from office for incompetency or malfeasance in office by an unanimous vote. It also empowers the commission to appoint and remove the judge of the municipal court; and to appoint, after suitable examination, judges and registrars of elections.

Oriental Municipal Government.—In the *Citizens Bulletin* (Cincinnati), of February 10, there is a most interesting address on "Municipal Governments in the Far East." The address was given before the Cincinnati City Club, by Harvey N. Shepard, of Boston, and is a review of the government of cities and villages of the far east, beginning with India. The striking thing that he brings out is the amount of home rule that these countries have in their local affairs, very much more than the average American city. In India, for example, for more than a thousand years the cities have had democratic local self-government, absolutely caring for their affairs without let or hindrance from anyone. Kings and emperors have come and gone in all this period; dynasties have risen and fallen; conquests have been made throughout the land; but the municipal government affairs in all this period have not been disturbed. In India there are 760 municipalities governed by a council which is generally elective.

Burma, however, is different from India. The government there was a despotism until the British took control and only since 1874 have democratic institutions been brought in.

In the Philippine Islands there are nearly 700 municipalities with over 12,000 elective officials. The local government in Australia and New Zealand are generally well known.

In China there are two classes of cities, the international city, and the native city. This applies, however, chiefly to the port cities. When you go into the country where the majority of the Chinese people live an entirely different condition of things prevails. Here they have the same sort of democratic village communities that one finds in India. On this point Mr. Shepard's words are as follows:

> When we hear of the establishment of a republic in China and inquire whether it will last, we must bear in mind that the great bulk of Chinese people have had the same sort of training in their town meetings which fitted the New England people before the revolution for self-government.

A large part of Mr. Shepard's address is given up to municipal government in Japan, where the system of local government and education is largely based on Prussian and French models, all of which have come into the country since 1878.

The supplement to this number of the *Citizens Bulletin* consists of a statistical chart published by the municipality of Nagoya, Japan, showing a yearly comparison of the condition of the municipality for a series of years. Among the tables are the following:

Area and extent.

Air temperature for a period of ten years.

Precipitation and weather for ten years.

Dwellings and population for ten years which also shows the number of males, females and the average per dwelling.

The number of living births, etc., for ten years, one of the columns indicating the living births per 100 residents for each year.

The number of deaths (residential population) for a period of ten years, one column showing the deaths per 100 residents for ten years.

Number of deaths classified by diseases.

Number of foreigners residing in the city.

A long series of statistics on education; another on shrines and temples; another on commerce, industry, factories; the value of principal products; deposits and loans in the banks; savings deposits and loans in the savings banks.

Postoffice savings deposits.

Railway passengers and freights.

Hotels and inns, for a period of five years, giving the number of hotels, the number of lodgers, Japanese and foreign, and the average per day.

Mail matters for a period of ten years.

Telegraphs.

Electric railways, including the number of miles, average number of passengers per day, for a period of ten years.

Hospitals and physicians.

Number of cases of infectious diseases, for a period of ten years.

Total revenue and expenditure of the municipality of Nagoya.

Municipal tax and the average burden thereof, which includes the average burden per person for each year which for 1900 was 1.27 yen, and 1909, 3.29 yen.

The national tax and average burden thereof, for a period of five years.

It is safe to say that there is not an American city that collects the data which would make possible such a detailed report of the condition and the various activities of the people, and of the municipality.

Samuel H. Ranck.

*

Charter Revision in Springfield, Mass.—The charter revision committee of Springfield, Mass., has issued two reports comprehensively outlining two divergent phases of the movement in the United States to adopt better systems of city government. In several important respects, both phases show similar features. They provide for election at large of all elective city officers instead of election of some by wards; for the elimination of party labels from the ballot; for assurance of elections by majorities; for short ballots; for expert administration; for greater centralization of powers; and for a large measure of home rule. Both aim at the abolishment of caucuses and both are designed to do away with the cumbersome bicameral system which has retarded expeditious work in many cities.

In respect to the two forms or frameworks of city government outlined by the reports: One provides for a mayor, or chief executive, vested with large powers, including complete control of the administrative functions of the city and for a common council of seven members in which all municipal legislative powers is lodged, but which is deprived of administrative jurisdiction. The power to appoint and remove city clerk, city auditor, city solicitor, directors of finance, public safety and public works is placed in the hands of the mayor. The other form provides a commission system—a mayor, who is to be director of public safety; a director of finance; a director of public health and charity; a director of public works; and a director of public property: all five to be elected for four years. This plan is subject to provisions of initiative and referendum as well as the recall.

*

Commission Government in Nebraska. On April 19 last Lincoln, Neb., voted on the question of adopting the commission form of government as provided by the "Banning law" of 1911. The question carried by a vote of 1982 for to 1911 against. This vote is not regarded as a true index of the sentiment of the city on the commission idea or plan, for many who favor such a system were lukewarm in supporting the law in question. In 1909 Lincoln voted to adopt a commission system by a large majority on a representative vote.

Five Nebraska cities have voted on the question of adopting the commission plan of government provided by the "Banning law" of 1911, as follows:

Omaha—adopted September 2, 1911—vote 5477 for to 2291 against.

Beatrice—adopted October 4, 1911.

Nebraska City—adopted January 16—vote 289 for to 179 against.

Grand Island—rejected March 19—vote 325 for to 745 against.

Lincoln—adopted April 19—vote 1982 for to 1911 against.

In Nebraska City the new system went into effect April 8. In Lincoln it will not go into effect until May, 1913. In Omaha it went into effect May 27 and in Beatrice, April 8.

*

The Virginia Commission Government League, in view of the approaching annual meeting, has made public a preliminary report of its efforts during the past year to bring about more adequate commission government legislation in Virginia. After a thorough investigation of commission government throughout the United States, the executive committee of the League came to the conclusion that the commission form amendment passed by the last legislature of Virginia violated, by the provision that various fee officers should be elected by popular vote, the principle that under a genuine commission plan the commissioners should have the power of appointing all other city officials. The League is now conducting a vigorous campaign of education and hopes to win out in its fight to have the amendment modified to correct its handicap.

*

American Ballot Laws, Arthur C. Ludington's admirable study of American ballot laws, 1888-1910, orginally published as Bulletin No. 40 of the New York State Library, has been republished in the bound volume of the State Library report. The study is a comparative tabulated digest of the ballot laws of the forty-six states and of the territories of Arizona and New Mexico in force November 8, 1910, and a brief chronological survey of certain features of the ballot laws enacted by each of these states and territories during the last twenty years.

*

Charter-Making in America and Effective Voting is the title of an article in the March issue of *Representation*, the journal of the Proportional Representation Society of England. The author, C. G. Hoag, declares the weakness of the American commission charters on both the executive and legislative sides can be eliminated at a stroke by enlarging the council a little, electing it by the single transferable vote in many broad constituencies and letting it appoint the chief executives instead of assuming their functions.

*

Voting by the Yard is the picturesque way in which the *Short Ballot Bulletin* calls attention to the grotesquely long ballot which voters at the recent New York primaries were called upon to use. The Los Angeles *Express* illustrates the same idea by having three men standing one above the other and holding the 14 feet long ballot. Omaha rivaled New York, having a ballot 7 feet long. When one takes into consideration the relative population of Omaha and New York, the former has in proportion a longer ballot.

*

The Government of German Cities is the title of a pamphlet issued by the City Club of New York. It contains the address of His Excellency Count Johann H. Von Bernstorff, the German ambassador, before the club, and Dr. Frederick C. Howe's address on the same occasion on "How the German City Cares for its People."

*

Pennsylvania Executive for Commission Government.—In a speech before the Lancaster Chamber of Commerce, Governor Tener of Pennsylvania declared himself in favor of commission government for cities.

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Atlantic City on May 14 by a vote of 3304 to 2182 adopted commission form of government.

II. FUNCTIONS

Efficiency Records in New York.—In a small private business organization there is no need for efficiency records. The head of the business enjoys a permanency of tenure and he is brought daily into such close and intimate contact with his employees that he possesses personal knowledge of the efficiency of each employee, which he can utilize not only in maintaining the efficiency of his working force, but also in determining which employees shall be promoted in salary or in position. The need of efficiency records first becomes felt when the organization becomes so large that the head of it does not come into personal contact with all of his subordinates and if in addition either the head of the organization or his principal supervising subordinates do not enjoy a permanent tenure the need of efficiency records kept contemporaneously becomes even greater. In the various departments of the municipal public service the head of department enjoys an exceedingly short tenure of office and comes into personal contact with very few of the hundreds of employees under his jurisdiction. He is obliged to rely upon the reports of his supervising subordinates who also do not enjoy the same stability of tenure found in the case of similar men in private life. This condition of affairs renders it imperative that the records of the employees' efficiency be carefully kept.

Under the efficiency record system which has been installed in the civil service of the city of New York, the supervising officer most closely in touch with the work of the employees is required to furnish quarterly a descriptive report upon the efficiency of the employees under his jurisdiction. In this report he divides his employees into three classes. In the first class he places those who have performed their duties satisfactorily. In every office this class ought to include a large majority of the employees and in the case of these employees the reporting officer need give only their names and their titles. In the second class he places those whose work has been more than satisfactory—those who have distinguished themselves by marked intelligence and zeal in the performance of their duties. These employees are selected by the reporting officer, by establishing a standard of average efficiency among the subordinates under his jurisdiction and then picking out for special mention those employees whose work has been distinctly superior to the grade of work performed by the majority of his employees. In the case of these superior employees it is required that the reporting officer furnish in addition to the name and the title of the employee a specific statement of his reasons for considering his work above the average of his office force. The reason assigned by the reporting officer must give the particulars in which the employee's work excels that of the other employees under his jurisdiction.

In the same manner the reporting officer places in a third class those whose work has been less than satisfactory or unsatisfactory. These are the employees whose work has been distinctly below that of the average of his department or bureau. For those who are placed in this unsatisfactory class reasons must also be assigned, giving the particulars of the unsatisfactory character of their work. On the report blank on which these efficiency reports are made a separate page is reserved for the employees of each of these three classes. This report blank is a four-page blank. On the first page are printed the instructions to the reporting officer and at the bottom a space is reserved for the date and the signature of the reporting officer. The second page is for the names and the titles of the employees who belong to the satisfactory class. The third page is intended for the names, the titles and the particulars of those who are considered to be in the "more than satisfactory" or "above the average" class and the fourth page is reserved for the names, the titles and the particulars of the "less than satisfactory" or unsatisfactory class.

In the preparation of these quarterly efficiency reports each bureau chief and other reporting officer establishes a standard of average efficiency for his bureau and classifies his employees in accordance therewith. When promotions are made however as the result of a promotion examination the employees of all the bureaus of the department are brought into competition and it would be unjust to rate competitively their records which have been prepared in accordance with varying bureau standards. Under such a system the employees under the jurisdiction of a lenient marking officer would be rated "more than satisfactory" "or above the average" for the same grade of work as other employees under a more severe marking, officer might be rated merely "satisfactory" or "average" or even "less than satisfactory" or "below the average." To obviate this difficulty and prevent this injustice there has been provided under the New York system for the keeping of efficiency records a board of promotion for each department of the municipal government.

The board of promotion consists of at least three superior administrative officers of the department, designated by the appointing officer of the department subject to the approval of the Municipal Civil Service Commission. In the actual administration of this efficiency record system the members of the board of promotion are generally the more important bureau chiefs or other supervisory administrative officers of the department and the appointment is made by the head of the department. This board of promotion holds a meeting quarterly for the purpose of considering the efficiency reports submitted by the rating officers of the department and at these quarterly meetings it assigns definite ratings to all the employees subject to its jurisdiction. The board of promotion organizes by the election of a chairman and the designation of a clerk to keep and transcribe stenographic minutes of its deliberations and to make the entries in the efficiency record book of the department. The board considers separately each of the reports submitted to it. It may in its discretion accept the reports as submitted or it may change the reports as they affect individual employees. If in the exercise of its discretion, however, it sees fit to change a report, the members of the board are required to state the reasons for this change in the minutes of the board of promotion.

Employees, who have been reported by their superiors as having performed satisfactory service and in whose case the promotion board agrees with the report of the employee's superior officer, are rated "C" on all items of their efficiency record. In the case of those who have been reported for sufficient reasons as being either more or less than satisfactory and in the case of those who having been reported as being nearly satisfactory are considered by the members of the promotion board for reasons specified in their minutes, to be either more or less than satisfactory, the board is required to assign definite marks in each of the six items of their efficiency record. These items are quality of work, quantity of work, general conduct, executive ability and capacity for initiative, average general efficiency and punctuality. The average general efficiency mark is the average of the ratings given on the first four items of the efficiency record—quality of work, quantity of work, general conduct, and executive ability and capacity for initiative. The mark for punctuality which includes attendance, is kept separately. No mathematical formula is required to be followed in determining the mark for average general efficiency; the determination of the relative weight to be attached to each of the component elements of this mark is left entirely in the discretion of the promotion board. It is therefore allowable to rate an employee "C" in three of the four items of his efficiency record and yet give him an average general efficiency mark of "B," if in the opinion of the promotion board the fourth item of the record on which he was given a rating of "B" is more important than the other three items of his record, in the case of that employee.

The marks are entered in specially prepared efficiency record books supplied to each department by the civil service commission. The efficiency record books, the original quarterly reports to the promotion board and the minutes of the promotion board's meetings are inspected at regular intervals by an examiner of the civil service commission. This inspection not only affords an opportunity for the introduction of such additional safeguards as may be deemed necessary to protect the integrity of the records, as, for example, the time-stamping of each report with the date of its receipt, the initialing of all changes in the marks entered in the efficiency record book, etc., but also presents an opportunity to the heads of the various departments to discuss the needs of the department from the point of view of its personnel with a representative of the civil service commission, who can report to the commission such suggestions and recommendations of the heads of departments as seem to possess practical merit. A detailed report is submitted by the examiner after each departmental inspection.

Once each year a transcript of the marks entered in the efficiency record books of each department is sent to the civil service commission and entered upon the efficiency record cards kept by the civil service commission for each employee in the city service. These efficiency records are kept for all employees in the competitive class of the civil service, excepting the members of the uniformed police and fire-fighting forces. Furthermore no efficiency records are kept by the civil service commission for school-teachers, laborers and employees in the city service who are not subjected to examination. In every promotion examination the average percentage of each candidate is determined by his percentage on his written examination and his percentage on his efficiency record and seniority. A weight of 50 per cent is attached to the written examination and a weight of 50 per cent is attached to the efficiency record and seniority. No candidate can have his name placed upon a promotion eligible list however unless he secures at least 70 per cent in his written examination.

Leonhard Felix Fuld.

*

New Jersey Utilities Law.—Two of the most distinctive features of the public utilities law of New Jersey passed at the 1911 session are the powers given to the state commission to attach conditions to the approval of local franchises and to require public utilities, including street railways, to make extensions. Section 24 of the act provides that

> No privilege or franchise hereafter granted to any public utility as herein defined, shall be valid until approved by said board (the board of public utility commissioners), such approval to be given when, after hearing, said board determines that such privilege or franchise is necessary and proper for the public convenience and properly conserves the public interests, and the board shall have power in so approving to impose such conditions as to construction, equipment, maintenance, service or operation as the public convenience and interests may reasonably require.

The extension clause is paragraph (c) of section 17, which authorizes the board to compel any public utility "to establish, construct, maintain and operate any reasonable extension of its existing facilities, where, in the judgment of said board such extension is reasonable and practicable and will furnish sufficient business to justify the construction and maintenance of the same, and when the financial condition of the said public utility reasonably warrants the original expenditure required in making and operating such extension." At the 1912 session of the legislature Senator Pierce introduced a general indeterminate franchise bill drafted by Dr. Delos F. Wilcox. This bill included the main features of the Wisconsin act together with a number of improvements suggested by the sub-committee of the National Municipal League's committee on franchises at the Richmond Conference. The bill failed of passage, receiving seven affirmative votes as against six in the negative, eleven votes being needed for passage. Senator Pierce says an indeterminate franchise measure will get through next year. Unfortunately, at the 1912 session a fifty-year franchise bill slipped through both houses and was repassed over Governor Wilson's veto. The governor declared himself in favor of the indeterminate franchise, but in New Jersey bills can be passed over a veto by a bare majority vote, and in 1912 both houses were politically opposed to the governor. Perpetual franchises were the rule in New Jersey until a few years ago, but in 1906 a law was passed limiting local grants to twenty years, or forty years if approved by a referendum vote. In 1908 this law was amended to exempt all cities and towns of less than 12,000 inhabitants from its provisions and establish for them a straight fifty-year limit. By the 1912 act this limit was made general and the referendum was eliminated. Those who argued in favor of the measure urged that the supervisory powers of the state board would keep the long-term franchises from being dangerous.

*

Ownership of Public Utilities.—In a recent public address, Arthur S. Huey, vice-president of H. M. Byllesby and Company, the big firm of public utility operators, said some very interesting things about public regulation. "The ownership of utilities in this country," said he, "is an outgrowth of economic conditions; not of a design to acquire the rights or property of other people, or to usurp functions belonging to others. . . . . Most efficiently and economically conducted as monopolies, public utilities are properly subject to regulation by the state and by the municipality. No monoply, however beneficent, should be permitted to exist without legal safeguards to protect the public." He called attention to the claim that it was difficult, if not impossible, to find first-class engineers free from corporation influence, who would accept investigation work for cities. He said that however true this might have been formerly, the condition was rapidly passing away as a result of the establishment of state public service commissions and the training of engineering experts by them. He also stated that on the part of the companies there had been during the last few years a much keener realization of their obligations to the public and to their patrons than formerly. He said that all discussions of the ownership, operation and regulation of public utilities had but one object, namely, the assurance of up-to-date, adequate service at the lowest reasonable rates. "Penalizing a utility company for improvements and economies by reducing the return on invested capital to mere interest rates, and repeating this process whenever ability and effort produce additional net earnings, is detrimental to the best interests of the public," said he. He called attention to the keen competition among cities and said that in view of the many demands for the use of public funds and credit in enterprises closed to private capital, such as public improvements, water supply, public buildings, parks, fire protection, civic sanitation, etc., it was not good business judgment for cities to go heavily in debt in order to invest capital in electric, gas, telephone and street railway enterprises, when private capital was already interested and was willing to work "with all the initiative and vigor of private enterprise for a very reasonable compensation." He argued that the financial machinery of cities moved slowly and laboriously and hindered the prompt and adequate development of utilities under municipal control. "In cities in which municipal ownership exists," said he, "the old fashioned and costly idea of 'building up plants out of earnings' and 'making plants pay for themselves' still prevails. The privately owned utility company obtains new capital, having learned by expensive experience that utility properties simply cannot be built up and extended from earnings, and at the same time render satisfactory service at low rates."

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San Francisco Affairs.—As a result of the great fire, San Francisco is extending and improving its protection against fire. The city's new system now comprises about 30 miles completed and in operation. A splendid pumping plant has been finished and was placed in operation May 1. This gives water from the bay at a 300 pound pressure to a considerable part of the down-town district. The fresh water reservoir at the top of Twin Peaks over 800 feet above the city base was opened with ceremonies of dedication on May 12. This will furnish water by gravity. It is expected that nearly 60 miles of the new system will be in operation by the end of the year and a total of over 75 miles completed with the present appropriations, which now reach $5,6000,000. With the completion of this great work, San Francisco will be well protected against fire, and an abundance of water can be furnished at every hydrant with any pressure up to 300 pounds to the square inch. Ample provision has been made against breakage of pipes, such as was caused by the destruction following the earthquake of 1906.

The work of actual construction has begun on the Panama Pacific Exposition site, where the swamp lands are being filled in and the buildings now in that area are being removed to make way for exposition structures.

The auditor has turned in to the Supervisors an estimate of the municipal expenses for the coming year which he places at a total of $12,859,935, one million dollars over the expenses carried by the last budget. The estimated rate of taxation of the city is $2.0523. This budget will be revised, however, by the board of supervisors.

City Attorney Long has rendered a written opinion to the the civil service commissioners that the constitutional amendment adopted October, 1911, places under civil service rule all of the offices enumerated in the charter as civil service offices, viz: county clerk, assessor, tax collector, sheriff, auditor, recorder, coroner, clerks and stenographers of justices' and police courts, police department, fire department, board of election commissioners, board of health, and all heads and departments controlling public utilities.

Mayor Rolph has appointed an advisory conference on charter amendments which is working on his inaugural recommendations with respect to the need of indeterminate franchise for public utilities, the exclusion from the bond limit of profit paying investments and the revision of the residence clause of the charter limiting the power of the city to utilize outside talent in its affairs.

The $8,800,000 bond issue for the purchase of land for a civic center and the construction of a city hall was approved by the voters on March 28, by 45,133 to 4,435.

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Rhode Island in 1912 joined the list of states having public utilities commissions, but the act establishing the commission is in some respects weak and incomplete. For example, no authority to control stock and bond issues or even to prescribe uniform systems of accounts or to require financial reports is given to the commission. In regard to local franchises, contracts and regulatory ordinances, it is expressly provided that they shall be deemed to be subject to the continuing control of the commission in the exercise of the powers enumerated in the act. Any utility corporation may appeal to the commission from any order of the local authorities relative to construction or service. This act is of special interest to Providence, which contains over 40 per cent of the entire population of the state. The franchise situation in Providence is unique. The street railways, the gas works and the electric light and power plant are all operated under 20-year exclusive franchises expiring July 1, 1912. The electric light franchise situation is complicated by the city's contract for public lighting and the street railway situation has been made more complex by certain state legislation under which the company claims rights in perpetuity. In 1911, the city employed Bion J. Arnold to give expert advice relative to the local transportation problem and Prof. Wm. D. Marks to report on electric lighting and power problems. Providence is very conservative, and although Alderman Kelso has been making a persistent fight for city ownership of all public utility fixtures in the streets, the indications are that the exclusive franchises will be renewed for another period of twenty years.[1]

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Hutchinson, Kansas, has the distinction of being the first commission governed city to decide by popular vote not to return to the old council system. At the election on April 2 the question of retaining the form was settled affirmatively by a majority in every precinct in the city (in all over 1100 majority) notwithstanding the fact that it was necessary to vote "no" if the ballot was to be counted for the commission plan.

This election was made compulsory by the special legislative act of 1911[2] under which Hutchinson has been operating since it became a first class city. This act was drawn by the enemies of commission government in Hutchinson and was calculated to produce an inefficient administration by cutting down salaries and changing other features of the laws of 1909. That the people are enthusiastic advocates of commission government is shown by the overwhelming majority given it in this election. Three years ago the friends of the commission mustered a majority of eight.

C. A. Dykstra.

*

Trackless Trolleys Abroad.—In a recent address before the Institution of Municipal Engineers (England), Horace Boat gave some interesting figures relative to the cost and earnings of trackless trolleys in Great Britain and on the Continent. Among their advantages as compared with the regular electric tramways is the fact that only about one-seventh as much capital is required to construct them. It is also noted that their maintenance charges are small, that the breakdown of one car does not tie up the line, and that they do not claim a monopoly of the street, for the reason that they can "career all over the road." The trackless trolleys are suited to sparsely settled suburban districts and to inter-town routes. If storage battery cars succeed in cities and trackless trolleys prove feasible for suburban and interurban street car transportation, there is no telling what will happen to the immense investments in existing street railways.

*

Single Tax.—The new commission charter of Everett, Washington, provides for the single tax in the following language:

> The assessment, levy and collection of taxes on real and personal property for all corporate or municipal purposes of the city of Everett, and to provide for the payment of the debts and expenses

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[1] Dr. Delos F. Wilcox.

[2] See page 107

thereof, shall be uniform in respect to persons and property therein: Provided, that for the years 1912 and 1913 there shall be exempt from such taxation 25 per cent, and for the years 1915, 50 per cent and for the year 1916, 75 per cent, and thereafter 100 per cent, of the value of all buildings, structures and improvements, and other fixtures of whatsoever kind upon land with in said city. Nothing herein shall affect property in said city exempt from taxation under the laws of the State of Washington.

⁂

Oregon has been having a practical demonstration of the clash between state and local interests in the regulation of public utilities. In Portland an initiative proposition for a local public utilities board was voted on and rejected. The legislature of the state had already enacted a public utilities law, which would have been in conflict with the local commission scheme in Portland. While the local commission bill was pending and before it was defeated at the polls, its friends took up the cudgels against the state law, and appealed to the referendum, thus postponing the time when the law will become effective until after the fall election this year, when it will probably be ratified by the people.

⁂

The Municipal Tramways of Leicester, England, were operated last year (1911) on a 60 per cent ratio. The tramways cover twenty miles of streets and are double-tracked except for about three miles. The total revenue for the year was a little over $700,000, and $40,000 of the surplus was appropriated to the relief of rates. The average fare paid was 2 cents and the average haul was a little over two miles. Electric traction was introduced in 1904 and the total capital investment to date has been about $3,540,000.

⁂

New York's Civil Service. Elliot H. Goodwin, the secretary of the National Civil Service Reform League, declared in a speech before the Cincinnati City Club, "Under Mayor Gaynor today we have a better enforcement of the civil service law than ever existed before. We have better public service, and we are not going back. As compared with Van Wyck in 1900, the present administration is far more efficient; there is hardly any comparison to be made."

⁂

In Bournemouth, England, the general manager of the municipal tramways has been experimenting lately with a prize or bonus scheme for the "best takings" for motormen and conductors on each route for a three months' period. He claims that the results have been very satisfactory. In addition to receiving a prize, the first man on each route will have the right to wear a gold star on the arm.

⁂

Columbus, Ohio, now has eight tickets for a quarter and universal transfers from the local street railway company. This reduction of rates is in accordance with the terms of a franchise granted in 1901 when Dr. Washington Gladden was a member of the city council. Under this grant the company was required to reduce its rates to the present level when its gross receipts reached $1,750,000 a year.

⁂

Salt Lake City Adopts Plan for Parking.—Plans for a great parking and boulevard system for beautifying the city have been adopted by the board of park commissioners of Salt Lake City. It is asserted that the improvements will cost $1,500,000 and will give the city a group of parks and boulevards second to none in the country.

⁂

Recall of Public Officials.—A carefully prepared list of references on this subject has been prepared by Charles Wells Reeder of the Ohio State University and published in the *Bulletin of Bibliography* for April.

III. POLITICS

Socialist Municipal Office Holders.—The following list of Socialists elected to municipal office 1908–1911 was prepared for the *Daily Socialist* of Chicago. It is admittedly incomplete, but it shows the growth of political Socialism.

Socialist Officers Elected in 1908

MASSACHUSETTS

Haverhill—Ward assessor.

MINNESOTA

Norman County—Attorney.
Puposky—Commissioner.

MISSOURI

Fornfelt—Mayor, two aldermen.
Morley—Constable.

NORTH DAKOTA

Berdella—School director.

PENNSYLVANIA

McKeesport—School controller.

UTAH

Eureka—Mayor, recorder, marshal, justice, three councilmen.

WASHINGTON

Outlook—Justice of peace, constable.

WISCONSIN

Milwaukee—State senator, four members state legislature, ten aldermen, six supervisors.
Two Rivers—Assessor.

Socialist Officers Elected in 1909

COLORADO

Grand Junction—Mayor.

IDAHO

Reubens—Clerk of school board.

ILLINOIS

Flora—Police magistrate.
Mattoon—Member school board.

INDIANA

Knightsville—Town marshal.

MASSACHUSETTS

Haverhill—State representative.

MINNESOTA

Mizpah—Supervisor.
Oaks—Supervisor.
Wilton—Supervisor.

OHIO

Cleveland—Assessor.

PENNSYLVANIA

Coral—School director.
Janesville—Inspector of elections.
Whitaker—City clerk, school board, entire board of aldermen, police magistrate.

UTAH

Robinson—Treasurer.

WISCONSIN

Brantwood—Town chairman, town clerk, school clerk.
Milwaukee—Three school directors, alderman.

Socialist Officers Elected in 1910

ARKANSAS

Bonanza—Two members school board.
Brentwood—Justice of peace, constable (resigned).
Havana—Justice of peace, two school directors.
McRae—Justice of peace, constable, school director.
Minerva—Justice of peace, constable, road overseer.
Truman—Two justices of peace.

CALIFORNIA

Dos Palos—Justice, constable.
Eureka—Alderman.
Huntington Beach—Two school directors.

COLORADO

Coal Creek—Two councilmen, member school board.

CONNECTICUT

Rockville—Alderman.

IDAHO

Port Hill—Road overseer, school trustee.

ILLINOÍS

Marissa—Alderman.
Pearl—Justice of peace, school director.

INDIANA

Richmond—Constable.

IOWA

Guilford Township—Two trustees, township clerk, justice of peace, two constables, assessor, school director.

KANSAS

Clay Center—Coroner.

MASSACHUSETTS

Haverhill—State representative.

MINNESOTA

Mizpah—Supervisor.
Norman County—Attorney (re-elected).
Oaks—Supervisor, justice of peace.
Puposky—Town supervisor.
St. Hillaire—Village president.
Two Harbors—Member state legislature, chairman school board, treasurer school board.
Wilton—Justice of peace, school clerk.

MISSOURI

Blodgett—Justice of the peace.
Cardwell—Justice of peace.
Fornfelt—Two members of school board.
Moorehouse—School director.
Morley—Justice of the peace, constable (reëlected).
Spurgeon—School director.

NEBRASKA

Broken Bow—Alderman, member of school board.

NEW JERSEY

Glassboro—Justice of peace, constable.
North Haledon—Two school trustees.

NORTH DAKOTA

Nineteenth District—Member state legislature.
Berdella—School director, school treasurer, assessor.

OHIO

Byesville—Five councilmen, two assessors, marshal.

OKLAHOMA

Blanchard—Clerk of school board.

PENNSYLVANIA

Reading—State representative.
Highspire—Councilman.

TEXAS

Grand Saline—Justice of peace.

UTAH

Theodore—Constable.

WASHINGTON

Battle Ground—Director.
Chelan—Councilman.
Clayton—Justice of peace.
Malo—Justice of peace, constable.
Outlook—Justice of peace (reëlected), constable (reëlected).

WEST VIRGINIA

Dungriff—Justice of peace, constable.
Elkins—Magistrate, councilman.

WISCONSIN

Alouez—Chairman town board.
Beloit—Coroner.
Brantwood—School clerk.
Grand Rapids—Coroner.
Manitowoc—Coroner.
Milwaukee—Congressman, senator, twelve assemblymen, district attorney, sheriff register of deeds, coroner, county treasurer, county clerk, clerk of courts, ten supervisors.
Two Rivers—Assessor (reëlected).

WYOMING

Superior—Justice of peace.

SOCIALIST OFFICERS ELECTED IN THE SPRING OF 1911

ARKANSAS

Mena—Alderman.
Winslow—Mayor, recorder, councilman.

CALIFORNIA

Berkeley—Mayor, two commissioners, member board of education.

Chico—Member board of education.
Eureka—Alderman (reëlected), police judge, school director, two library trustees.
Huntington Beach—School director.
Nimshaw—School trustee.
Rancho—School trustee.
San Bernardino—Councilman.
Santa Cruz—City commissioner.
San Luis Obispo—Alderman.
Sausalito—School trustee.
Sawtelle—School trustee.
Watts—Mayor.

COLORADO

Coal Creek—Two councilmen.
Nederland—Mayor, three trustees.
Victor—Mayor, city clerk, treasurer, six aldermen.

FLORIDA

Duval County—Justice of peace.

IDAHO

Coeur d'Alene—Mayor, treasurer, city clerk, four councilmen.
Orofino—School trustee.
Stites—Two aldermen.

ILLINOIS

Beckemeyer—Trustee.
Belleville—Alderman.
Canton—Six aldermen.
Davis—President village board, three trustees.
Dorrisville—Mayor.
Grafton—Mayor.
Granite City—Mayor, three aldermen.
La Salle—Alderman.
Maryville—Clerk, trustee.
Mattoon—Alderman.
O'Fallon—Mayor, two aldermen, city marshal, street commissioner.
Pana—Alderman.
Pearl—Village trustee.
Riverton—Police magistrate.
Rockford—Two park commissioners, two aldermen.
Spaulding—Clerk, six trustees.
Thayer—Village president, three trustees, member school board.

INDIANA

Portland—Clerk.

IOWA

Belle Plain—Councilman.
Colfax—Councilman, member school board.
Liberty Township—(Bussey, Everist, Maryville, Hamilton)—Three township trustees, township clerk, two justices of peace, two constables.
Madrid—Mayor, councilman.
Muscatine—Two aldermen, two school directors.

KANSAS

Altoona—Police judge.
Arma—Mayor, police, judge, four aldermen.
Coffeyville—County coroner, county surveyor.
Columbus—Councilman.
Curransville—Mayor.
Dunkirk—Three members school board.
Fredonia—Three aldermen.
Girard—Mayor.
Fort Scott—City attorney, three aldermen.
Frontenac—Two councilmen.
Oakley—Councilman.
Osage City—Two aldermen.
Rosedale—Alderman.
Scammon—School director, school treasurer.
Simpson—Two constables (one resigned.)
Washington Township—(Crawford Co.) —Township clerk, trustee, treasurer, two justices of peace.
Winfield—Councilman.

MAINE

Mechanics Falls—Two members board of selectmen.

MASSACHUSETTS

Salem—Aldermen.

MICHIGAN

Benton Harbor—School trustee.
Boyne City—Alderman, supervisor.
Flint—Mayor, three aldermen, assessor, two supervisors, constable, school trustee, justice of peace.
Greenville—Mayor, treasurer, two aldermen, two supervisors, two constables.
Holland—Alderman, constable.

Kalamazoo—Mayor.
Muskegon—Alderman.
South Frankfort—Village president, clerk, treasurer, three trustees, assessor, township treasurer.
Wilson—Mayor, four town officials.

MINNESOTA

Bellingham—Member school board, school clerk.
Brainerd—Three aldermen, one member school board.
Eagle Bend—President council, recorder, two councilmen, justice of peace, constable, assessor, member school board.
La Porte—Mayor.
Mizpah—Assessor, supervisor.
Oaks—Town clerk, constable, justice of peace.
Pillager—Village ticket.
Puposky—Supervisor of assessments, assessor, road overseer, town supervisor.
St. Hillaire—Village president.
Ten Strike—Mayor, three aldermen.
Two Harbors—Mayor, four aldermen, city assessor, justice of peace (one alderman expelled).
Wilton—Road overseer, two constables.

MISSISSIPPI

Biloxi—Councilman.

MISSOURI

Buffalo—Township carried.
Cardwell—Mayor, alderman, president of school board, four members of school board, marshal.
Edna—Councilman, president school board, member school board, two members village board.
Gibson—Mayor, two school directors.
Maplewood—Councilman.
Minden Mines—Mayor, marshal, police judge, three members board of education, collector.
Moorehouse—Alderman, school director.
Mountain Grove—Alderman.
Neosho—School director.
Spurgeon—School director.
West Plains—Member school board.
Westport—Member school board.
Willow Springs—Councilman, marshal.

MONTANA

Basin—School trustee.
Butte—Mayor, treasurer, five aldermen, police, judge.
Helena—Alderman.
Kalispell—Alderman.
Lewistown—Alderman.
Miles City—Alderman.
Walkerville—Alderman.

NEBRASKA

Beatrice—Mayor.
Broken Bow—Alderman.
Havelock—Police judge.
North Platte—Councilman, police judge.
Red Cloud—Mayor.
Wymore—Mayor, clerk, treasurer, two aldermen.

NEW JERSEY

North Haledon—Two school trustees.

NEW YORK

Endicott—School trustee.

NORTH DAKOTA

Buford—Township clerk, three supervisors, two justices of peace, two constables.
Deslacs—Chairman board of trustees, village trustee, justice of peace, clerk.
Devils Lake—Three aldermen.
Fargo—Alderman.
Hamilton Township—Two school trustees.
Lakota—Aldermen.

OKLAHOMA

Antlers—Four or five officers.
Coalgate—Two aldermen, two school directors, assessor.
Harrah—Marshal, police judge.
Krebs—Four councilmen, two members school board.
Wilburton—Alderman.

OREGON

Coquille—Mayor.
Medford—Councilman.

PENNSYLVANIA

New Castle—Councilman.
Oil City—Member select council, member common council, two school comptrollers, inspector of elections.

Rockland—School director, registrar and assessor, judge of elections, inspector of elections.

SOUTH DAKOTA

Brookings—Alderman.
Howard—Alderman.
Milesville—Three members school board (one resigned).
Ontario—Township supervisor, treasurer, township clerk, justice of peace, chairman school board, road overseer.

TEXAS

Big Springs—Constable.
Dalhart—Alderman.
Grand Saline—Justice of peace.
Stonewall County—Four precinct officers, justice, constable, two county commissioners (all but justice resigned).

VERMONT

Barre—Lister.
Bennington—Village attorney.
Granitesville—Lister.

VIRGINIA

East Radford—Two councilmen.

WASHINGTON

Edmonds—Mayor, clerk, treasurer.
North Bellingham — Councilman. (Repudiated by party.)
Spokane—Commissioner of public works. (Repudiated by party.)

WEST VIRGINIA

Charleston—Councilman.
Star City—Mayor (unseated), recorder (unseated), four councilmen.

WISCONSIN

Brantwood—Justice of peace.
Clifford—Supervisor, assessor.
Elroy—Alderman.
Grand Rapids—Two councilmen.
Green Bay—Justice of peace.
Kiel—Assessor.
Manitowoc — Mayor, alderman, two supervisors.
Marinette—Supervisor.
Mellen—Assessor, comptroller, alderman.
Milwaukee—Mayor, treasurer, attorney, comptroller, two civil judges, twenty aldermen.
Montfort—Marshal, constable, two justices of peace, two board members,
Osceola—Councilman.
Racine—Alderman, justice of peace.
Sheboygan—Alderman, school superinvisor.
Sheboygan Falls—Three members of school board.
Superior—Two aldermen, county supervisor.
West Sweeden—Town chairman, clerk, assessor, treasurer.
Whitewater—Alderman, three constables, police judge.

WYOMING

Walcott—School director.

SOCIALIST OFFICERS ELECTED IN NOVEMBER AND DECEMBER 1911

COLORADO

Grand Junction—Commissioner.

CONNECTICUT

Bridgeport—Councilman.
Manchester—Selectman.

INDIANA

Diamond—Trustee.
Farmersburg—Marshal.
Millersburg—Trustee, clerk, marshal.
Normal City—Trustee.
Shelburn—Secretary, treasurer, two trustees.
Shirley—Trustee, treasurer, clerk, marshal.
Spencer—Marshal.
Staunton—Two trustees, clerk, treasurer, marshal.

KENTUCKY

Newport—Commissioner

MASSACHUSETTS

Haverhill—State legislator (re-elected).

MICHIGAN

Kalamazoo—Charter revision commissioner.
Saginaw—Four charter commissioners.

MINNESOTA

Clearwater County—County commissioner.
Crookston—Mayor, alderman, constable.
Eddy Township—Supervisor, treasurer, assessor, town clerk, justice of peace, three membsrs school board, constable.
Leon Township—Constable.
Norman County—Surveyor.
Thief River Falls—Five councilmen.
Twin Valley—Recorder, three councilmen, justice of peace, street commissioner, constable.

NEBRASKA

Banner County—Treasurer.
Hayes Center—County surveyor, county coroner.

NEW JERSEY

Elizabeth—Two aldermen, thirteen justices of peace, six police judges, two constables, four pound keepers.
North Haledon—Tax collector.
Rockaway—Mayor.

NEW YORK

Auburn—Alderman, county supervisor.
Johnstown—School board.
Schenectady—Mayor, eight aldermen, president of council, comptroller, treasurer, two assessors, member of state legislature, county superintendent of poor, eight supervisors, constable.

NORTH DAKOTA

Hutichon Township—Township supervisor, four school officers.

OHIO

Akron—Two councilmen, two assessors.
Amsterdam—Mayor.
Ashtabula—President of council, councilman at large, member school board, three assessors, constable, justice of peace, township trustee.
Barnhill—Mayor, marshal, clerk, treasurer, four councilmen, assessor (township).
Bethel—Two members board of public affairs, two judges of elections, clerk of elections.
Cambridge—Two trustees, school board, treasurer, constable, assessor.
Canton—Councilmen, assessor, mayor (contest).
Carleton—Two councilmen.
Cincinnati—Member school board.
Cleveland—Member constitutional convention.
Columbus—Four councilmen, four assessors, three members board of education.
Coke—Constable.
Conneaut—President council, three aldermen, assessor.
Coshocton—Justice of peace.
Cuyahoga—Councilman, constable.
Dayton—Two councilmen, one member board of education, three assessors.
Dorset Township—Justice of peace.
East Liverpool—Councilman, justice of peace, member of board of education, township assessor.
Findlay—Alderman, assessor.
Fostoria—Mayor, councilman, assessor.
Hamilton—Vice-mayor, five councilmen, two assessors, constable.
Kent—Constable.
Lima—Mayor, two councilmen.
Linden Heights—Mayor, councilman, assessor, marshal.
Lorain—Mayor, two councilmen, two assessors.
Martins Ferry—Mayor, president council, five councilmen, city treasurer, constable, four assessors, member school board, township clerk, two township trustees.
Massillon—Councilman.
Midvale—Elected complete ticket.
Mineral City—Mayor, five councilmen, clerk, marshal, three members board of public affairs, justice of peace, member of board of education.
Mineral Ridge—Mayor.
Mount Vernon—Mayor, councilman, assessor.
Niles—Councilman.
Osnaburg—Mayor, four councilmen.
Rittman—Four councilmen, marshal.
St. Marys—Mayor and all Socialist candidates except auditor.
Salem—Mayor.
Sayre—Constable.
Sugar Grove—Mayor—two councilmen, marshal, member school board.

Toledo—Two councilmen, assessor.

Toronto—Mayor, three members board of public service.

Valley Township—Three trustees, clerk, treasurer, constable, assessor.

Wadsworth—Three councilmen, treasurer, marshal, assessor.

OKLAHOMA

Rock Falls—Treasurer school board.

OREGON

Grants Pass—Two councilmen, surveyor.

La Grande—Two councilmen.

PENNSYLVANIA

Allegheny County

East Deer Township—Three school directors, road overseer, auditor, inspector of elections, judge of elections, constable.

East McKeesport—Two councilmen, two school directors, auditor.

East Pittsburgh—Several.

McKeesport—Select councilman, common councilman, constable, several precinct officers.

North Versailles—Clean sweep.

Patton—Four school directors, five members board of supervisors.

Pitcairn—Two councilmen, four school directors, auditor, constable, two inspectors of elections, judge of elections.

Pittsburgh—Jury commissioner, many minor election officials.

Turtle Creek—Five councilmen, justice of peace, four school directors, judges of elections, inspectors of elections.

Verona—Some.

Wall—Two councilmen, two school directors.

Wilkinsburg—Judge of elections, three inspectors of elections.

Wilmerding—Auditor, register-assessor, school director, judge of elections, three inspectors of elections.

Beaver County

Fallston—Four councilmen.

Rochester—Auditor.

Pulaski Township—Supervisor, four school directors, judge of elections, inspector of elections.

White Township—Supervisor, two school directors.

Berks County

Reading—Five councilmen, twenty-five election officials, two constables, two ward assessors.

Bedford County

Broad Top Township—Five school directors, and whole township ticket except constable.

Blair County

Altoona—Some.

Juniata—Three councilmen.

Tyrone—Two councilmen.

Chester County

North County Township—School director.

Clearfield County

Du Bois—Justice of peace.

Falls Creek—Justice of peace.

Crawford County

Meadville—Two inspectors of elections.

Dauphin County

Harrisburg—Assessor.

Lykens—Councilman, inspector.

Swatara—Inspector.

Wiconisco—Two school directors, road supervisor, constable, two judges of elections, two inspectors, two assessors.

Eagle County

Corry—Two city councilmen, one inspector of elections.

Erie County

Corry—Two city councilmen, one inspector of elections.

Girard—Councilman.

Fayette County

South Connelsville—Burgess, justice of peace, constable, four councilmen, five school directors, three auditors, judge of elections, inspector of elections.

General—Several constables and a number of election officers.

Lawrence County

Hazeldell—Clean Sweep.

New Castle—Mayor, three councilmen.

Luzerne County

Nanticoke—Councilman.

Lycoming County

South Williamsport—School director.
Williamsport—Councilman.

Montgomery County

Pottstown—Three councilmen, assessor, constable, two judges of elections, three inspectors of elections.

Northumberland County

Pott's Grove—Assessor, two auditors, three school directors, judge of elections, inspector of elections.
Sunbury—Treasurer, auditor, five members of council, seven members of school board.
Trevorton—Overseer of poor.

Potter County

Roulette—Entire township ticket except two auditors.

Venango County

General—Two aldermen, ten school directors, four road supervisors, three auditors, six assessors, three constables, two justices of peace, seventeen election officers.
Cranberry Township—Several township officials.
Franklin—Commissioner.
Oil City—Five councilmen, two aldermen, constable, judge of elections.
Emlenton—School director, road commissioner, justice of peace, inspector of elections.
Floyd—School director.
Kennerdell—Constable, judge of elections.
Pittsville—Inspector of elections, reg. assessor.

Washington County

West Brownville—Councilman, justice of peace, constable, inspector.

Westmoreland County

Derry—Some.
Irwin—Several.
South Greensburg—Two councilmen, two members school board, justice of peace, high constable, constable, inspector.
Trafford City—Two councilmen, two school directors.
Youngwood—Some.
General—Ten councilmen, ten school directors, two justices of peace, high constable, two borough constables, supervisor, two auditors, quite a few election boards.

County Unknown

Crestline—Solid.
Wheaton—All borough candidates.

RHODE ISLAND

Providence—State representative.

UTAH

General—Four mayors, one president town board, four commissioners, fifteen councilmen, two clerks, two treasurers, two recorders.
Bingham—Two members town board of trustees.
Cedar City—Mayor, treasurer.
Eureka—Mayor, recorder, treasurer, four councilmen.
Fillmore—Two councilmen.
Mammoth—Mayor, treasurer, recorder, councilman.
Manti—Two councilmen, recorder, precinct judge.
Munroe—Councilman.
Murray—Mayor, commissioner, auditor.
Salt Lake City—Commissioner.
Stockton—Village president, two trustees.
Tintic—Constable.

WASHINGTON

Bremerton—Two councilmen.
Concrete—Some claimed.
Edmonds—Mayor, clerk, attorney, treasurer, four councilmen.
Everett—Three councilmen.
Granite Falls—Some claimed.
Seattle—Member school board.
Tukwila—Mayor, clerk, treasurer, mashal, three councilmen.

WEST VIRGINIA

Wheeling—Township clerk, township trustee.

Socialist Officers Elected in January, 1912

MINNESOTA

Duluth—Alderman.

WEST VIRGINIA

Adamston—Mayor, recorder, five councilmen.

Miami—Mayor, two councilmen.

Star City—Mayor, recorder, five councilmen.

Prof. Robert F. Hoxie, University of Chicago, who has studied carefully the Socialist movement in this country, has this to say about the foregoing list:

> This list of elected Socialist officials is based on newspaper reports, investigations made by Mr. W. J. Ghent, the records of the national secretary of the Socialist party and returns from more than a thousand letters of inquiry and questionnaries sent out from the University of Chicago. It is to be regarded as a trial list only but strong evidence points to the fact that it does not give an exaggerated statement of the number of socialist officials recently elected in the United States.
>
> A casual examination of this list brings out the following significant points concerning the Socialist movement in this country:
>
> 1. There are at present (April 1, 1912) between eleven and twelve hundred Socialist office holders in the various states of the union.
> 2. The great mass of these office holders were elected in the year 1911.
> 3. The political power of the Socialist party is as yet almost entirely confined to municipalities.
> 4. It is not however confined to any one section of the country but is broadly pervasive.
> 5. The special seat of Socialist power seems to be in the northern central and middle western states.
> 6. Its successes are to be found both in urban and industrial and in rural or agricultural communities, and
> 7. If the present rate of increase of power is maintained the Socialist party will have to be reckoned with as a really formidable political force within the next half dozen years.
>
> Investigation shows that these Socialist successes represent on the whole a liberal and progressive type of socialism —not ultra theoretical or revolutionary— which stands for honesty and efficiency of administration and a broad and practical program of social reform. As such they are, in the opinion of the writer, one phase of the progressive, democratic movement which is sweeping the country.

⁂

Law Breaking in Atlantic City.—For many years the situation in Atlantic City concerning law breaking has been of greater or less interest depending upon the agitation which was going on concerning it. During all this time, with a very few exceptions, there has been open disregard of the laws regarding the sale of liquor, especially on Sunday. There has also been more or less open violation of other laws, particularly those against gambling, prostitution, election fraud and graft.

These violations were seldom if ever taken by the county or municipal officers before the grand jury. When the excise investigation was made by the Fisk legislative committee in 1908 the officials answered on this point to the effect that where evidence had been secured and presented the grand juries had always failed to indict. They therefore claimed that to collect other evidence of the same character and to present it to the same or similar grand juries would result in nothing except unnecessary expense to the county or the city and that they were justified in omitting to secure it.

This policy on the part of the grand jurors had been the result of the continuance in office of one set of sheriffs for a great many years. Three men only were sheriff of the county in twenty-four years, one of whom served twelve years of the twenty-four, after which his son succeeded him and appointed his father deputy sheriff. Under these sheriffs a system of drawing grand juries composed largely of license holders, law breakers, office holders, and the immediate associates, business partners and relatives of these and others amenable to "influence" was developed. Four or five eminently respectable parties were placed on each grand jury in order to give it a good appearance. Such grand juries did not want to and would not indict for the above mentioned crimes.

To retain the control of the sheriff's office and the appointment of grand juries of this character it became necessary "to elect the sheriff." This was accomplished by the practically open purchase of votes and the use of repeaters. It was not unusual for from two to five hundred repeaters to be brought into Atlantic City for election purposes. After a recent election it was reported that two colored women disguised themselves as men and each of them voted more than ten times in different precincts! Instances of individual repeaters having voted as many as thirty and forty times are generally credited.

From refusal to indict for certain crimes it was but an easy step to the holding of indictments over the heads of law-abiding citizens who attempted to enforce the law in order to coerce them to take or to refrain from taking action as might be desired. This was applied in particular to one of the local newspapers. The "last straw" was the indictdictment for libel early in 1911 of Harvey Thomas, the editor of *The Atlantic Review*. The effect of the indictment of Mr. Thomas was quite the reverse of what was expected, for it precipitated the publication by *The Review* of a great deal of information concerning the conditions, and these exposures were so important and so full of detail that the attention of the governor and the supreme court justice for the district was obtained. The legislature also took cognizance of the situation and sent down the Macksey investigating committee to probe the county.

The report of the committee laid bare the very serious condition of affairs. To meet it the legislature authorized the attorney-general or his assistant to go into counties where certain conditions existed and take charge of the prosecutions. This they did, however, without avail, for grand juries refused as before to indict. They then made the discovery that the sheriff had illegally removed certain register books from the county clerk's office. This was the basis upon which Justice Kalisch of the supreme court disqualified him from selecting the grand jury which was to pass upon his own case and appointed two elisors to draw it. It thus followed that the "elisor grand jury" of Atlantic County was drawn.

This was said to be the second grand jury ever drawn by elisors in the United States. (A third, which found many indictments, was drawn later under direction of Judge Swayze in Hudson County, New Jersey.)

With the assistance of Attorney-General Wilson and Assistant Attorney-General Gaskill, this elisor grand jury first made a thorough investigation of election matters. They indicted the sheriff promptly, and as the investigation progressed the following officers also: the county auditor, the postmaster, five freeholders, the city water commissioner (who was the "boss" of the city and the county), two councilmen, the city clerk, the city engineer (who was also county engineer), the building inspector, the city electrician, two tax assessors, a comptroller's clerk, the boardwalk inspector, a commissioner of the board of health, an inspector of the board of health, a tax clerk, a water department clerk, a policeman and a city detective.

Following these indictments for election frauds, evidence was presented against about ninety of the license holders for Sunday liquor selling and true bills found. Later on these pleaded "non-vult" and were fined $200 each, which they paid. The sale of liquor on Sunday was discontinued and the town was dry on that day, but after twenty "dry" Sundays some have been "wet.' Guests of hotels having licenses, who order liquors on Saturday and acquire title to them on that day, are served with them on Sunday.

A number of graft cases were also presented, and some of the indictments above recited were for graft. Evidence of misconduct in office on the part of the county judge was considered and it being found that his actions had been taken under the cover of his office so that he could not be indicted, a presentment was made to the governor requesting that he take proper steps for his impeachment.

Later on before a "struck jury" the attorney-general tried two of those indicted for elections frauds and they were found guilty. He then tried the local "boss," Louis Kuehnle, who was water commissioner, for participating unlawfully in the awards of contracts and he also was found guilty. He has since been sentenced to a fine of $1000 and one year in state prison at hard labor. This created one of the greatest political sensations known to Atlantic City for years, and undoubtedly signalizes a victory for Governor Wilson in his campaign against corruption in local municipal affairs. Later four freeholders and the county engineer (also city engineer) were convicted of graft. In still another election case for the abduction of an election officer, the jury disagreed, nine being for conviction. These defendants later pleaded non-vult, as did a number of others. In only one case tried has there been an acquittal. Still other cases are to be tried.

The bills for $90,000 for extras for the Timber water main (a $225,000 contract) on account of which the water commissioner was found guilty, have been tied up in the court and will probably not be paid.

◆

Des Moines.—The recent election in this city seems to have excited more than the usual amount of comment because of an apparent effort to create the impression that the commission form of Government was losing ground. The headlines put over the despatches from Des Moines indicate this clearly. Here are some of them: "Des Moines Losing Commission Form;" "Des Moines Recounts;" "Des Moines Backslide;" "The Plan in Jeopardy;" "Des Moines Commission Government in Dissolution;" "A Revised Example;" "Commission Fiasco at Des Moines." The Editor of the National Municipal Review desirous of securing a first hand impression wrote to a number of careful correspondents in the city and the following slightly abridged letter represents the consensus of opinion among them, although some of them put the matter somewhat more strongly.

> Dear Sir:—I have your letter of the 26th ultimo, which calls attention to notes in the papers about our recent election. I have included some observations on this point in a letter which I mailed you some days ago. As a matter of fact, there is no dissatisfaction with the commission government, as such, in the city of Des Moines. If the matter were put up to a vote of our people today, whether we should retain the new form or return to the old form of mayor, councilmen, board of public works, city wards, log-rolling, party distinctions, long ballots, etc., 90 per cent of our vote at least would sustain the newer form.
>
> It is true that the election retired three members of the city council, who had served since the beginning of the commission form. The two members who had served but two years were returned, Mayor Hanna receiving the largest vote that any one ever received for any public office in the city.
>
> The new superintendent of public safety received the largest vote that any commissioner ever received. The other successful condidates were all elected by very good majorities.
>
> J. G. Berryhill, who was perhaps the leading factor in introducing the commission plan in this city, explains the election as merely a change in the personnel of the commission. I think that is hardly a complete answer and that the election signifies also in some measure at least, a change in the policy of the city.
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> John MacVicar was, of course, retired to private life and with him two men who were held to be responsible with him for certain policies in the conduct of the city affairs.
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> Now supposing it to be merely a change in personnel, this change is best

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[1] These notes have been furnished by one who has taken an active part in the events which he describes.—The Editor.

explained upon the ground that there has been a great deal of rather unseemly contention of a personal character in the council, and Mr. MacVicar has been held to be responsible for these conditions. It was felt also, that he had come to represent the big business and corporation interests, and that he had forgotten the masses of the people.

Explaining it as a matter of policy, the change is the result of the policy of expending large sums of money in the heart of the city, rather to the neglect of improvements in the outer parts of the city Des Moines has been ambitious to make great improvements during the last five years, and these improvements have generally been secured by the wide awake business interests in the form of splendid bridges, municipal buildings, radical changes of grades, etc., in the heart of the city. These expenditures finally disregarded expense, as for instance, the tearing down of a very good steel bridge with perhaps 20 years of life yet in it, and the erection of a fine new 80-foot wide concrete arch bridge in its place. The council had been cautioned by Mayor Hanna against this very policy during the last two years, and had been warned of what would happen, but this advice was not well taken.

It has been reported abroad that the recent election was the result of weariness on the part of our people in moral cleanliness and a return to a wide open town policy. Nothing could be further from the truth. It is true, the defeated candidates grasping at straws to save going down, did attempt to make it appear that that was the issue. The fact of the matter is, however, that there never has been a council more fully committed to moral cleanliness and general humanitarian policies than the present one. This is evidenced by the fact, that in the mayoralty fight, Mayor Hanna received from 65 to 84 per cent of the vote in all the residence precincts, while in the other, known as the liberal precincts, his opponent whose manager made a strong appeal to these elements, divided the vote evenly with him, and of the total vote, he received 10,700 against 5000.

The new superintendent of public safety received about two-thirds of all the votes cast and his appointment to the department of public safety was hailed with delight by all the best people of the city.

Our new chief of police and our new police judge were the appointments of Mayor Hanna and the new superintendent of public safety and are men whose lives and character are in themselves a guarantee of the best possible moral conditions and their appointment has been received with almost universal satisfaction, excepting among the ultra-liberal element. Finally the personality of Mr. MacVicar became a strong element in the campaign. He is a man of strong personality, making warm friends and equally ardent enemies. The people came to regard him as a czar, and the result was in a large measure a personal rebuke to him. The defeat of the other men, particularly of Mr. Schramm was because of his subservience during the past four years to Mr. MacVicar.

It should not be allowed to get abroad that our people have rebuked the new form of government, unless it be true that they have done so, and this, almost no one in Des Moines would be willing to say. I thing it is important that your magazine have the facts and give them such currency as you feel they deserve.

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London Municipal Politics.—The London Municipal Society is publishing an interesting series of leaflets in aid of the campaign of the Municipal Reform party against the Progressives, or Progressive-Socialists. These leaflets seek to influence the London voter to oppose the Progressives in elections for the London county council and for the borough councils. They also are directed at some of the measures of the Liberal government which affect London.

The principal objections to the Progressives are that they desire to extend the practice of municipal trading, that thay have in the past been responsible for extravagance and high taxes, that they have favored awarding contracts for public work and supplies to foreigners rather than paying somewhat higher prices at home and thus giving employment to London laborers, and that they have opposed the commercial audit of the accounts of municipal enterprises.

The Municipal Reformers claim that recent increases in the London tax rate have been caused by unfair action of the radical (Liberal) government. It is alleged that through its measures and departments the government has forced upon London new and large expenditures for services not of a purely local character which merely benefit the county of London, but for services of a national character for the benefit of the nations as a whole and that it has made no increased grants to London to meet this additional expenditure.

Though the Municipal Reform party is avowedly campaigning against socialism, the program put forward in its campaign literature would, in America, probably have to meet the charge of being in some respects advanced in the direction of socialism. The party undertakes to give an efficient administration of the municipal electric tramways and to provide new routes where required by the public. It is pointed out that three years of Progressive socialism gave but thirteen miles a year of new tramways while four year of Municipal Reform gave sixteen miles a year. The Municipal Reformers also propose to continue the building of houses on the London county council estates and to sell these houses to workingmen on a small payment plan similar to that of building societies. In addition, their program includes the feeding of necessitous children, the free medical inspection and treatment of children, the provision of open air schools for children in delicate health, the clearance of slum areas, the provision of open spaces and play grounds, the payment of the trade union rate of wages rather than the award of contracts to foreigners at somewhat lower rates, the inspection of the sources of the London milk supply, the strict enforcement of the law in respect to the adulteration of food and drugs, and the registration and inspection of lodging houses, bake houses, dairies, laundries, slaughter houses, and workshops. The Municipal reformers boast that they have bought new parks and enlarged those already existing, that they have supplied lakes for the people to boat on, that they have provided swimming accommodations, and that they have give more band concerts than the Progressives. The foregoing measures outline a fairly progressive policy for a party which is directing its special fight against municipal socialism.

William H. Glasson.

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Women at Work: This letter from Miss Virginia Brooks gives in graphic form an account of her splendid work in the little town in Indiana near Chicago, which she has made her home:

> According to your request I will tell you a few of my activities in West Hammond. You have probably read of my long fight, extending over a year and a half to rid West Hammond of a graft ring that has been assessing the Poles out of house and home for rotten improvements, which represented about 25 cents on the dollar. I might run over the incidents briefly. I was a musician by profession and knew little of business or property, when I was confronted with $20,000 worth of assessments on a little piece of property left to my mother by my father upon his death.
>
> That November, 1910, three days after the receipt of the assessments, I put my furniture in storage and with my mother, came to Hammond feeling I must do something, but not knowing where to begin. No sooner had I stepped into the town, than I was aware that the streets were made of inferior material and poor workmanship, in fact one street was under construction, and so raw was the poor work, that the Poles were threatening the lives of the workmen. This resulted in my interviewing all the inspectors and workmen on the different improvements and collecting evidence which I turned over to the state's attorney, who would not give me any assistance.
>
> I have stopped election after election, where the grafters tried to turn West Hammond into a city. I have stopped rotten paving and been kicked by policemen controlled by the clique and thrown into jail and persecuted by the friends of the grafters. I have had judgments against me by judges that were hired by them and almost every indignity waged against me to the naming of the worst dive here, the "Virginia" Buffet. In spite of the grafters, I have succeeded in electing to office this spring an entire anti-graft ticket and at the coming meet-

ing of the board will close down all of the notorious dives in West Hammond. I have saved for the Poles nearly $21,000 on reductions of over-charged assessments. I have succeeded in ousting an old clique who for years had been grafting on the school board, and being elected myself to the office of president. This means that I will introduce into the neglected school, manual training, domestic science, free night school, free kindergarten, and a play-ground.

I have established a settlement house in Hammond, Ind., right across the state line, where the boys and girls have night classes, and where mothers who work can take their babies for care. There are some 32,000 Poles in this region and the future looks to great achievement.

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Pittsburgh.—Several months ago the Voters' League of Pittsburgh (which was responsible for the making and proving of the charges against the old council, and which resulted in so many of their members going to jail or paying heavy fines for corrupt practices in office) reached the conclusion that certain departments of Mayor Magee's administration were inefficiently and corruptly managed. Its executive committee exhausted every effort to bring about changes in the three departments, (public safety, public works and health) without public exposure. It was the hope through simple legal procedure, to bring about changes in the administrative officers without exposure or trial. The council, however, disapproved of the various plans offered and by resolution passed unanimously on April 30 called upon the League to file its charges. They were prepared, ready to be filed at the meeting of the council May 7, when certain business men asked that action be again delayed. The League consented to the delay. After two weeks no solution was offered and the League's charges were accordingly made to the Council and the trials demanded. Up to this point there was nothing very unusual, although the charges were serious and far-reaching; but irrespective of their political or factional affiliations, the papers of the city ignored the charges made by a responsible organization, which had on more than one occasion "made good." To quote from the bulletin which it issued and sent 100,000 copies directly to the voters of the city so that they might know: "The concurrent attitude of our papers would seem to indicate that they are acting together to suppress the charges and keep the public in ignorance thereof."

The council has arranged for a hearing of the charges with Judge Robert S. Frazer as presiding officer. President Weil of the League has declared that it is ready to produce 1000 witnesses to prove the charges which involve not only gross and corrupt mismanagement, but the corrupt alignment of the administration with those back of the social evils of the city.

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Lapeer, Mich.—A community in which a large majority of the electors are Protestants, has a Roman Catholic priest, Father Dunnigan, as Mayor. He owes his election not only to his personal popularity, but to his attitude on the liquor question. Although a total abstainer he believes that there should be a certain number of saloons. The town had originally gone dry though this had not solved the problem, so Father Dunnigan suggested a sufficient number of licenses to meet reasonable needs. It is believed that he has the liquor question fairly well in hand. Among his first acts the mayor repeated the annual order for the spring cleaning of streets and alleys, and for the first time in the history of the community the citizens have taken the matter seriously. As mayor, Father Dunnigan is a member of the school board and this year the high school has added two departments, manual training and domestic science.

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Milwaukee.—As one result of the defeat of the Socialists at the recent election the legislature passed the non-partisan election law which abolished all party titles in municipal elections. The bill applies to all cities of the state, in other words they get the benefit of the hard work which has been done in Milwaukee. In commenting on this enactment, Frederic C. Morehouse, president of the City Club, said:

> That the reform could not be instituted by the cordial-coöperation of all three parties is to be deplored; but I do not see that, under the circumstances, this could have been helped. And by determining the matter just now, when the longest possible time must elapse before an election is to be held under the new law, we are enabled to treat it on its merits, without reference to its possible effect upon the man's candidacy. I think it was particularly statesmanlike of Governor McGovern to urge the matter at this special session, and not permit the matter to be knocked between parties and individual interests in the next legislature."

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Seattle's Election.—At the recent election in Seattle there were twenty-seven proposed amiendments to the city charter submitted to the electorate, three city propositions, four bond issues, and eight port of Seattle propositions. The single tax amendments were defeated as were also those regarding publicity of candidates for office, the public welfare section, city newspaper proposition and the mayor's veto. The street railway franchise was defeated and the idea of municipal telephones approved. The Bogue civic plans were defeated. Of the twenty-nine recommendations made by the Seattle Municipal League on amendments, bond issues and city propositions, nineteen carried.

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The Oberlin College Civic Club has recently done an excellent piece of practical work in publishing, after a careful investigation of the facts, a report to the voters of Lorain County on the character of the candidates for local offices. This report was evidently taken seriously by the electors, for all of the recommendations of the club were followed in the primary, with one unimportant exception. Professor Geiser[1] and the Club should be congratulated on the results of this piece of public service.

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Duluth.—On May 8 the voters of Duluth adopted provisions providing for the recall, the initiative and the referendum. Of 6669 ballots recorded, 5331 voted for the amendment. A three-fifths vote was necessary.

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Omaha electors chose a commission of seven on May 8. The ticket headed by Mayor Dahlman (who has served two terms) was elected by a substantial majority over the Citizens Union ticket.

IV. MEETINGS AND ORGANIZATIONS

The Buffalo Municipal League.—In his last report, Mr. Melvin P. Porter, the secretary-treasurer of the League, summarized the year's work as follows:

> Though great improvement has been made in the type of city and county officials elected since the League began its work, the League reached the conclusion that efficient and economical city government is impossible under the complications of the present antiquated charter. Therefore, beginning with the campaign of 1910, the League attempted two things in addition to its usual report on the records of candidates:
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> 1. To secure from each candidate for the state legislature a pledge to "do all in his power to permit the city of Buffalo to vote on a new charter, as the city legally requested in a referendum in November, 1909 [under the Public Opinion Ordinance]." This pledge was signed in 1910 by all senators elected from Erie County and by three of the nine assemblymen, two of whom belonging to the party then in the minority of Albany had relatively little power.
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> 2. To secure the defeat of as many as possible of the Erie County state legislators, who ignored the city's request for

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[1] See page 355.

the mere right to vote on a new charter and the election in their places of men desiring to serve the city. In 1910 one such man in each house was signally defeated and replaced by Mr. Burd in the senate and Mr. LaReau in the assembly.

In 1911, foreseeing that Mr. LaReau, whose party normally receives only about one-third of the votes in his district, could not be re-elected, the League early took steps to insure the nomination of a Republican, Mr. Horton, who would be equally insistent on the city's right to vote on a new charter.

Two assemblymen who refused to sign the League's charter pledge were defeated in the first and third districts by men who signed. Another in the fifth district was elected by only 69 plurality, and would have been replaced by a man who signed if there had been money to mail the League's report to the voters, as was done in the third district, where a defeat by 256 votes in 1910 when no circularizing was done, was changed to a victory with 1199 plurality this year after the League's circulars had been mailed to the voters.

Last year's above charter pledge still binds all Erie County senators for the remainder of their term. They ought again to be able to have the senate pass the charter bill. Instead of having, as in 1910, only three assemblymen pledged, two of them of the minority party, the League now has five, the entire representation of the majority party, pledged to the following much stronger pledge:

"If elected to the Assembly, I will do all in my power to permit the city of Buffalo to vote on a new charter, as the city requested in a referendum in November, 1909; but I will remain free personally to approve any other charter and will oppose the forcing of any charter upon the city until this submission to the voters."

Mr. Porter has prepared for the League a program embracing "The Ten Commandments of a City Charter" as follows:

(A.) POWER CONCENTRATED in a single small council, executive as well as legislative, and in each member as head of a department.

(B.) ACCOUNTABILITY TO VOTERS secured (prior to election) through a short ballot, permitting intelligent voting, and direct nomination or preferential voting—selection as well as election by the voters, election at large, accountability to all the voters; and (after election) the referendum, voters' veto for a misrepresentative act, the initiative, voters' power to compel a desired act, the recall, voters' prompt replacement of a bad official, publicity of meetings, etc., involving simple rules of order, and appointments subject to the merit system

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Philadelphia Taxpayers' Committee.—The taxpayers' committee on city finances of Philadelphia, a committee organized to conduct proceedings to secure the administration of the financial affairs of the city in accordance with the constitution and the laws of the state of Pennsylvania, has issued a report for 1910–11, in which it reviews its efforts to arouse in a "majority of the citizens of Philadelphia a sense of the outrages upon civic decency practiced in the administration of the city affairs."

This report shows that seventeen civil proceedings were instituted by the committee to prevent unlawful acts and six criminal prosecutions started to bring to justice city officials and contractors on grounds of illegal and fraudulent conspiracies. The civil proceedings included litigation to prevent practices that had grown up whereby a large amount of city work was done before an appropriation had been made or a contract executed to cover it; against improper methods of computing the debt limits of the city and illegal loans; against conspiracies between officers of the city and street paving and street cleaning companies; illegal supplemental contracts and extra and improper payments under contracts; and absence of competitive bids under contract grants as required by law.

In addition to these proceedings, the committee gathered and vigorously presented evidence to the Catlin commission brought into existence by a resolution of the senate of Pennsylvania to investigate charges of immoral and dishonest conduct against public officials of the commonwealth. Although this evidence was presented to a commission that was later declared by the courts as not having sufficient authority to proceed, it did much to educate the people by its exposures of wrongdoing in the municipal affairs of the city of Philadelphia. The summary of the evidence produced before the commission by the committee, given by the report, alleges that bids for city work were repeatedly rejected because favorite contractors had not entered the lowest bid; that work that could have been done by the city without additional cost was made to involve the city in contracts amounting to $1,360,000; that the route of the Northeast Boulevard, in course of construction, was changed to benefit lands owned by members of the city council and political leaders, and that later this land, although originally assessed at only $1,200,000 brought to the owners not only damages of $1,200,000 for 160 acres taken for boulevard purposes but also a new assessed valuation of $2,100,000 on the 970 acres remaining; that real estate was sold to the city at fictitious values by members of the city councils through the agency and cover of trust companies; and that the failure of administrative officials to require contractors to fulfill provisions of contracts meant annually large losses to the municipality.

The committee, of which Logan M. Bullitt, Esq., is chairman, and Thos. Raeburn White, Esq.,[1] counsel, has now actively before it a disposal of the civil and criminal proceedings, and is endeavoring to give the present administration the benefit of the large amount of information which it has accumulated about the affairs of the city. It intends to endeavor to secure such legislation at the next session of the legislature of Pennsylvania as its investigations have shown necessary to prevent a recurrence of the evils which led to the formation of the committee.

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Dr. Delos F. Wilcox, Chief of the bureau of franchises of the public service commission, New York, and joint author with James W. S. Peters of the subcommittee report on a model street railway franchise presented to the National Municipal League at Richmond, made a trip through the middle west during the past winter, speaking before the City Clubs of Chicago, Kansas City, St. Louis and Cincinnati. In Chicago he spoke on "The Decapitalization of Public Utilities;" in Kansas City on "The Conservation of the Streets;" in St. Louis, on "Municipal Public Utilities," and in Cincinnati on "Urban Aspects of Conservation." Everywhere he urged the civic necessity of the cities regaining and keeping absolute control of the streets. To this end he advocated the central principles of the "Model Franchise," namely, an indeterminate grant with a practicable purchase clause and the establishment of a sinking fund to provide for the retirement of the capital out of earnings and the gradual reduction of the purchase price. He criticised particularly the Chicago street railway settlement, because the ordinances made no provision for a reduction of the capital account until the city is able to pay the full amount of the purchase price. He pointed out that starting with a purchase price of $50,000,000 as of June 30, 1906, the street railways of Chicago stood on the books at more than $125,000,000 before the close of 1911, while the city's purchase fund with its meagre accumulations would amount to only about $7,500,000 at the close of the fiscal year. In other words while the city was accumulating a purchase fund of $7,500,000 the purchase price increased $75,000,000. The worst of it, to Dr. Wilcox's mind, was that of the present purchase price a very large sum, estimated at about $35,000,000, represents old franchise and scrap values and property which has disappeared in the process of reconstruction. The Chicago ordinances should have provided a fund for writing off this dead capital before there were any surplus profits for anybody. Dr. Wilcox also criticised the Chicago ordinances because they made no provision for the investment of the city's purchase fund, with the result that while the companies are all the time putting in new money and drawing 5 per cent interest on it, the city has to content itself with letting its money lie in the banks at 2¼ per cent. He everywhere urged the necessity of making public utility investments safe, as much like municipal bonds as possible. If the money which people put into these properties is safe, said he, there is no excuse for offering any bonus or additional reward over the minimum rate to induce capital to come in. Indeed, if the investors are sure of their interest, sure that the integrity of the property itself will be preserved and that the investment will gradually be paid off, it will be almost impossible to drive capital away because it will be so anxious to get in. In Cincinnati, where the city was in the midst of negotiations in regard to a union depot and railroad terminal franchise, Dr. Wilcox applied the principles of the model franchise to the particular local problem. Everywhere, he urged, the streets are the symbols of democracy and the political success of our institutions depends largely upon our ability to free the local and national highways from the encroachments of private interests. The American people is suffering from an overload of individualism and the very least that can be done to restore the balance between public and private interests is the conservation of the highways as public property free from special easements.

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[1] Mr. White is a member of the Council of the National Municipal League.

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Intercollegiate Civic League Convention.—A hundred and fifty students representing universities in all parts of the country assembled at Columbia University on April 11 for the sixth annual convention of the Intercollegiate Civic League. Delegates came from such distant points as Missouri, Minnesota, and North Dakota. The programme included a session at which the policy of the League and the activities of the clubs were discussed, a dinner at the City Club, and a second day spent in Washington where the delegates were received by President Taft, Chief Justice White, Attorney General Wickersham, Ambassador Bryce, Speaker Clark, Senator Borah, and Congressman Underwood. During the informal discussion the national parties were subjected to a criticism which was especially significant as coming from eastern as well as western men. Mr. Clyde Duffy said that in North Dakota "we cannot tell the difference between a progressive Republican and a Democrat; I vote in the Republican primaries and at the same time I am president of the Woodrow Wilson Club." The Harvard delegates precipitated a spirited debate by urging the formation of civic clubs in women's colleges and their admission to the League. A decision in the matter was postponed. In various ways a lively interest in problems of city government was shown. The California Club has been investigating the question of municipal ownership for Mayor Wilson of Berkeley; the Western Reserve Club has done useful work for the Municipal Association of Cleveland; the Pennsylvania Club has coöperated with the Philadelphia House Commission and other local organizations; and the Williams Club, which has 275 members, has accomplished truly notable results by undertaking a social survey of neighboring towns and by investigating through committees such questions as child labor, milk supply, drainage, and housing. R. Bayard Cutting, who as chairman of the executive committee successfully guided the up-building of the League from the time of its formation in 1906, was presented with a loving cup, he having resigned some months before the convention. The present Chairman is William M. Chadbourne of New York City, a member of the council of the National Municipal League.[1]

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[1] Edward M. Sait

League of California Municipalties.—For fourteen years the League of California Municipalities has been doing good work and the year just closed was the most useful of the series. The Proceedings of the Fourteenth Annual Convention is the first bound volume to be issued. It is full of practical advice and suggestions for all sorts of officials, especially those of the smaller communities. One of the most interesting papers is that of the city solicitor of Pasadena on Recent Court Decisions Affecting Municipalities. The chief case noted was that of the *Contra Costa Water Company vs. Oakland*[1] which among other things, refused to hold that a rate which afforded 5½ per cent net revenue was not confiscatory. Pavement and street improvements generally, water supplies and sewerage and taxation are some of the questions considered. There are 362 pages of interesting matter, inadequately indexed.

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The St. Louis City Club which, under its constitution, is prohibited from taking action on any public matters and therefore being chiefly a forum for the discussion of public affairs, has recently canvassed its membership of 1000 in order to secure the active co-operation of as many members as possible in the work of those organizations which do actively engage in propaganda and committee work. Practically all the charities, settlements and other social service organizations have been given opportunity to put in applications for volunteer workers and the City Club public service committee is busily engaged in bringing together the men and the opportunity. Between nearly three hundred men out of the membership of one thousand replied to the circular of the committee.

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California Equal Suffrage League.—The Civic Center, in San Francisco, founded by the College Equal Suffrage League, has been reorganized in order to work more efficiently for improved legislation and political education. Instead of a "center" in San Francisco from which all other portions of California would be covered, the directors have organized chapters in different sections of the state to work in connection with a state board of representatives from the several chapters. Branch chapters have already been organized in San Francisco, Oakland, Berkeley, Alameda, Sacramento and Stockton.

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The St. Louis Civic League has been developing an interesting work in forming its membership into ward groups along the same general plan as that of the Pittsburgh civic commission. In addition to assisting the League in carrying out its program, through local assistance in the wards, these committees are also serving to bring into closer contact the various organizations in the wards interested in public affairs, for instance, the women's clubs, school patrons' organizations, improvement associations and church clubs.

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The Pittsburgh Voters League in a recent bulletin calls attention to the insufficient and improper inspection of work done for the city or supplies purchased by the city and urges that an adequate system of inspection and audit be established. It says that "It is necessary only for council to make it a part of all contracts for work done or supplies furnished that they be inspected, audited and approved by some authority independent of the one letting the contract."

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New York State Mayors Conference.—The third annual Conference of Mayors of New York State convened in Utica June 10–12. Five sessions were held, at which were discussed such phases of municipal government as home rule, aldermanic activities in municipal government, steps in dealing with the social evil, testing efficiency of public schools, solving the municipal lighting problem, street railway franchises, and readjusting a city for greater efficiency.

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[1] 113, col. 669.

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First International Municipal Congress and Exposition held in Chicago, September 18–30, 1911,[1] has published its proceedings in a pamphlet of 167 pages. It contains outlines of papers on such subjects as municipal accounting and efficiency, city planning, woman in the municipality, city charters, reduction of fire waste, cost of health departments, and garbage disposal.

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Laramie, Wyoming, Civic Association.—Following the visit of Clinton Rogers Woodruff, secretary of the National Municipal League, prominent citizens of Laramie gathered together May 10 and organized the Laramie Civic Association. Mayor Stiltzer was elected president, and A. W. McCullogh secretary.

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The Illinois Mayors' Association met May 30 and 31 in Evanston. They devoted a large portion of their sessions to a discussion of serious social problems and public utilities and services generally.

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The St. Louis Municipal Art League has been merged into the St. Louis Civic League, thus affording a very interesting example of merger for other cities to study.

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The Los Angeles Municipal League has broadened the scope of its activities to include county affairs.

V. ACADEMIC AND EDUCATIONAL

European Civic-Tour.—The Boston chamber of commerce-trip to Europe last summer proved the worth of study on the spot under good leadership of the various problems of civic administration and development. Realizing the value of this idea, but believing that the scope and variety and choice of subject might be vastly improved another trip has been planned this summer by a newly formed organization called the International Civic Bureau. The committee of arrangement consists of Frederick C. Howe, who was one of the directors of the Boston trip; of George B. Ford, the Columbia University city-planning lecturer, and R. R. Miller who has been conducting trips in Europe for the last seven years. The party as planned sailed from New York on June 27 and return, arriving in New York about September 1. The trip will visit leading English, Dutch, Belgian, French and German cities of municipal interest. In each of these places those things will be visited for which the city is noted in a civic way and everywhere the places visited will be under the guidance of local authorities who can open the doors and explain things in a way that the private individual traveling alone is quite unable to equal. A particular point is being made of the fact that most such tours are too much study and not enough tour; this tour is arranged so that it will be a real vacation as well as an education and inspiration. This is done by making a great feature of pure recreation, recreation of an unusual sort which will bring the members of the party in direct contact with the play of the people of the country.[2]

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Civic Education Through Debating.—The Debating League for education in citizenship in New York City has been recently proposed and sponsored by the

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[1] See page 146.

[2] From George B. Ford.

People's Institute. It will include a number of allied groups, viz.: the public day and night high schools; and an independent group composed of such societies as the Y. M. C. A., the Y. M. H. A., the Educational Alliance, Cooper Union Graduate Club, etc., and several societies representing the various collegiate institutions of New York City. Each group or branch, for purposes of competition, will be considered independent of the other branches. All branches however, will be subject to the governing body, the central board, which will have jurisdiction over all inter-society activities. Any society, wishing to become a member of any group, can do so by merely making application to the central board and subscribing to its rules and by-laws. The central board will in nowise have power to interfere with the internal affairs of the respective societies or exact any financial obligation. The central board, which is composed of men of reputation and prominence in New York City, will provide prizes, subjects for debate, times and places of meeting, judges, bibliographies, etc., settle disputes and other matters as may arise from time to time. The triangular system of debates is to prevail. Under this system all societies come in contact with one another, debate both sides of each problem, and can join or sever their connection with the League at any time without deranging materially the plans for any one debating years.

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Cincinnati Prize.—The National Municipal League has established through the generosity of some of its members in Cincinnati an annual prize of twenty dollars, to be called the "Cincinnati Prize," to be awarded to the student, in any department of the University of Cincinnati who submits the best original essay on a subject bearing upon the municipal government or the civic life of the city of Cincinnati. The subject selected for the 1912 competition is "Municipal Service Reform." The essays submitted contained (a) an analysis of the laws of Ohio relating to the civil service of cities, (b) a critical review of the manner in which such laws have been administered in Cincinnati; (c) a comparison as to efficiency between the civil service commission of Cincinnati and similar commissions in other Ohio cities; (d) notices of good features in civil service laws governing other American cities which are not embodied in the municipal civil service laws of Ohio; (e) a discussion of the practical operation of municipal civil service laws together with suggestions for their improvement and better administration.

Elliot H. Goodwin, Esq., Secretary of the National Civil Service Reform League, and Max B. May, Esq., of Cincinnati, were the judges of the prize which was awarded to Maurice B. Hexter, Class of 1912, University of Cincinnati.

⁂

City Planning Bibliography.—The Special Libraries Association has issued as the regular May issue of *Special Libraries*, an extensive bibliography of city planning, prepared by the division of bibliography of the Library of Congress and the landscape architecture department of Harvard University, in coöperation with several state and legislative reference libraries. City planning is defined as "the intelligent control and guidance of the physical conformation, growth and alteration of cities, towns, or considerable parts thereof considered in their entirety." The bibliography is divided into two main parts, the first a list of general works, magazine articles, bibliographies and periodicals devoted to the subject; the second a list of materials relating to different cities and localities. In this latter part 172 American cities and towns are listed with references to their plan, besides 72 cities in Great Britain, Canada, India, Australia, Germany, France, Austria, Belgium, Italy, Netherlands, Roumania, Spain, Switzerland and Sweden. There are 62 pages of closely printed references. The publication may be obtained for 25 cents from Guy E. Marion, secretary Special Libraries Association, 93 Broad Street, Boston, or John A. Lapp managing editor of *Special Libraries*, State Library, Indianapolis, Ind.

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The Association Technique of Paris, France, has recently issued a small pamphlet devoted to the treatment of open spaces in the cities. The report contains many references to conditions in the United States showing particularly the influence of the American playground movement on the development of parks on the continent. The pamphlet quotes, with some amusement, an article from the New York *Herald* in 1906 comparing American and European park development bringing out the contrast of the artificiality of European parks as compared to the naturalness of American parks. The article which was entitled "Central Park Beats Them All" seems to have somewhat aroused the publishers of the pamphlet. The pamphlet shows clearly the tendency everywhere toward increasing the service of the parks to the community.

⁂

A Cuban Municipal Journal.—During the past ten years Dr F. Carrera y Justix has been unremitting in his efforts to arouse interest in municipal affairs throughout the island of Cuba. Seven years ago he established a municipal journal entitled *Revista Municipal y de Intereses Economicos,* and at the same time organized a bureau of information which is placed at the disposal of municipal officials throughout the island. The bureau furnishes such officials with material on all questions relating to municipal affairs and gives them technical advice on matters relating to municipal policy. This bureau has done very important service in improving municipal conditions in Cuba, and the work of Dr. Carrera y Justix deserves the recognition of American students of municipal conditions.

⁂

"The American City" is developing most satisfactorily from month to month. It is improving as rapidly in its quality as it is increasing in its quantity. Its illustrated discussion of current municipal problems cannot but fail to be of great help to all students in municipal problems. Its new editor, Harold S. Buttenheim, is making it a publication well worth while. The June number is specially devoted to the work of women apropos of the approaching meeting of the General Federation of Womens' Clubs.

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The Civic League of St. Louis has issued this year a more comprehensive list of speakers on civic and social questions than formerly in order to meet the growing interest in a wider range of subjects. This list of speakers is sent broadcast to organizations and individuals in the city and largely influences the makeup of the programs of local neighborhood improvement associations, women's clubs church societies, and the like. Practically every topic of local current interest is included in the list.

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The National Association of Local Government Officers (British) has recently published a pamphlet containing its constitution and a brief history of the association.

VI. JUDICIAL DECISIONS[1]

Recent Civil Service Decisions.—In Illinois in the case of *People ex rel. James W. Gullett, et. al. vs. James S. McCullough,* the Illinois supreme court recently upheld the constitutionality of the civil service law approved June 10, 1911. Suit was brought by three clerks in the office of the secretary of state to secure a writ of mandamus directing the auditor of public accounts to issue to the petitioners warrants on the state treasurer for the amounts due them upon payrolls certified by the secretary of state without the certification of the state civil service commission. The jurisdiction of the commission over the office of the secretary of state was disputed on the grounds that the civil service act as far as it applied to officers whose offices are created by the constitution was null and void.

This case was of importance because had it been decided against the constitutionality of the law as it applied to these departments it would have seriously limited the extent of the merit system in Illinois. Fortunately the court upheld the constitutionality of the law.

In Philadelphia on April 1 the court of common pleas, no. 2, handed down a decision in the case of *Smith et al. vs. the City of Philadelphia et al.*, in which it held that patrolmen in Philadelphia who had been appointed from eligible lists arranged by districts held their positions illegally. This case was started four years ago by the Pennsylvania Civil Service Reform Association. It grew out of the fact that the last civil service commission had divided an eligible list for patrolmen into thirty-five separate lists corresponding to the thirty-five police districts in the city. Under this system whenever the director of public safety wished to make appointments of patrolmen certifications were made not from the general list, but from the specific district list for the district to which appointments were to be made. The result of this was that it was very easy for a person who stood almost at the bottom of the list to secure appointment from a district list which he headed; and the practice grew up of persons on an eligible list effecting a change of residence so as to get placed on a district list where their rating would give them a high position and, after having secured appointments, moving back to their place of original residence. In these ways the effectiveness of competitive examinations for the police department in Philadelphia was seriously weakened, if not practically destroyed. In its decision the court held that this procedure of dividing up eligible lists by districts was entirely contrary to the law. It said:

"To establish mere residence as an index of knowledge was beyond the power of the civil service commission. Its mode of ascertaining proficiency is not by caprice or conjecture, but by competitive examination.' The result of the decision has been to invalidate the employment of about 1000 patrolmen at present in the service of the police department in Philadelphia. In order not to obstruct public business, however, these officers will be continued for a short time, but if they wish to secure permanent appointments it will be necessary for them to enter an open competitive examination.

In New York the court of appeals in the case of *Simon vs. Maguire* has upheld the action of the New York City civil service commission in putting in the competitive class the position of probation officer in the New York City inferior courts. The decision of the court is unusually striking in that it unanimously reverses the unanimous decision of the appellate division holding that the position should be exempt. The decision of the court of appeals is based mainly on the case of *People ex rel. Schau vs. McWilliams,* in which it was held that the courts could not interfere in the action of a civil service commission on the question of classification where there was room for reasonable men to differ as to what the classification should be. In the opinion which accompanied the decision, however, the court distinctly laid down that the declaration in the statute that a position is confidential does not ipso facto make that position exempt. The Page law reorganizing the inferior courts contained a clause declaring that the probation officers were the confidential employees of the justices, and this clause was one of the main grounds on which the appellate division held that the position should be made exempt. The decision of the highest court is of great importance to the merit system in New York City in keeping the probation officers out of politics, and the municipal civil service commission has taken a high stand in insisting that all the probation officers, who had been appointed without examination following the decision of the lower court that the places were exempt, should be dismissed and their places filled by appointments from the eligible list.

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[1] Prepared by Richard W. Montague, Esq., of the Portland (Ore.) Bar.

In another case—that of *Merritt vs. Kraft*—the New York court of appeals upheld the lower court in refusing to reverse the action of the state civil service commission in transferring from the competitive to the exempt class the thirteen positions of examiners of stock transfers in the state comptroller's office. The court handed down no opinion, resting its decision on the ruling in the case of *People ex rel. Schau vs. McWilliams*, referred to above, and the appellate division in its decision did not enter into the merits of the question of classification in any way whatsoever. In a third case, involving the question of the classification of sixty special excise agents in the New York State Department of Excise, the court on similar grounds has upheld the state civil service commission in refusing to transfer these positions from the competitive class, where they had been for fifteen years, to the exempt class.

Robert W. Beecher.

New York.

Wisconsin—Home Rule.—In the 1911 session of the Wisconsin legislature a so-called "Home Rule" bill was passed. The act gave every city the power to alter or amend its charter or to adopt a new charter by convention.

> Every city, in addition to the powers now possessed, is hereby given authority to alter or amend its charter, or to adopt a new charter by convention, in the manner provided in this act, and for that purpose is hereby granted and declared to have all powers in relation to the form of its government and to the conduct of its municipal affairs not in contravention of or withheld by the constitution or laws, operative generally throughout the state. (1911, ch. 476.)

The constitutionality of the act was tested before the supreme court of the state, arising from the question of a proposed alteration of the charter by Milwaukee in order to allow the city to conduct the business of furnishing its citizens with ice. The court handed down a decision[1] against the constitutionality of the act. The decision is based on the grounds that, since the constitution provides, that "it shall be the duty of the legislature . . . . to provide for the organization of cities" and since the legislative power is vested in the senate and assembly, a municipal organization can only be created by legislative act, that is, by legislative charter, and a legislative delegation of authority to make a city charter or a part of it is a delegation of legislative power and void.

The decision strengthens the principle that "Home Rule" in order to stand the test of the courts must be based not on legislative act alone but on a constitutional provision expressly authorizing it.

George Tiefenthaler.

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Complications Under Direct Primary Laws.—The indifference to party divisions in these days when party names are discharged of their significance gives rise to amusing—and to party managers vexatious—complications under the direct primary laws. It frequently happens that members of one party receive nominations to minor offices in another, and in a number of instances men have been actually chosen members of the election committees of the opposite party.

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[1] *State of Wisconsin, et rel. Carl T. Mueller vs. Carl D. Thompson*, City Clerk of the City of Milwaukee.

It may be that these confusions are merely the temporary effects of a new and complicated system, but there is much ground for the belief that the direct primary system presupposes valid and vigorous party divisions, and having performed an indispensable service in breaking up the intrenched and inveterate rule of bosses it should now be superseded, certainly in municipal elections by some method less exigent of popular attention in minor details and more responsive to broad currents of opinion.

Provisions of the New York direct primary, especially those prohibiting the placing of a name more than once, have been held unconstitutional by the supreme court in New York.

Richard W. Montague.
Portland, Oregon.

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Charter Revision in Michigan.—Decisions previously mentioned in this column to the effect that Michigan cities must amend their charters by a general revision, not piecemeal, have been affirmed. A contention that the provision permitting such revisions applied only to cities incorporated under the general act was not sustained by the court, which held in *Gallup v. Sagward* that cities having legislative charters came under the law.

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Municipal Pure Food Laws.—A conviction for violation of pure food ordinances passed by the city of Chicago was upheld by the supreme court of Illinois[1] despite the contention that the state law did not cover the particular offense, and being later than the city ordinance, impliedly repealed it. The power thus preserved to municipalities to legislate upon matters of food cleanliness and adulteration as they arise is manifestly of the utmost importance.

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Elections—Ballots.—The order in which the names of candidates shall appear on the ballot is the subject of a decision in Chicago. The court there held that the election board had no right to determine the order but that that function should be performed by the county clerk. The later legislation on this point most usually follows the Minnesota plan whereby the order is changed at intervals in the printing. Undue importance has probably been attached to this feature of the long ballots now in use. An analysis of a number of cases where it was insisted that results were materially affected by position on the ballot, showed that candidates placed lower down were readily elected where there was any ascertainable ground of preference—identification with a popular cause, a better known or better liked personality, etc., and that the choice of the better position was traceable as a cause only where all were obscure or unimportant. When that condition exists there is little hope of good results anyway.

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Parks in Denver.—The supreme court of Colorado construing the constitution of the state with a commendable purpose to recognize and carry out its obvious intent holds the people of Denver[2] have every power in making a charter possessed by the legislature, and that notwithstanding the failure to enumerate parks in a list of the objects for which land may be condemmed, the city may provide for the purchase and condemnation of lands for parkways.

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Commission Charters in Oklahoma.—The technical objections to the adoption of commission charters in Oklahama arising out of failure to observe certain formalities in the election have been declared insufficient, and the charter held properly adopted by the supreme court in the case of *Mitchell v. Carter*, decided March 12.

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[1] *Chicago v. Ice Cream Manufacturing Company*, 96 Northeastern Reporter 872.

[2] *Landaner v. Denver*, 119 Pacific 157.

The commission form of government has also recently been declared constitutional by the court of last resort in Nebraska.

Pueblo Charter Declared Legal.—On April 6 the Pueblo charter was upheld by the courts and a temporary halt in the contest over its legality brought about by the decision of Judge Rizer sustaining the city commissioners in the quo warranto proceedings instituted to oust them from office.

VII. SOCIAL AND MISCELLANEOUS

The City as a Socializing Agency.—The March number of the American Journal of Sociology contains several articles of interest to students of the city problem. Several of them were papers presented at the annual meeting of the American Sociological Society.

The first paper is by Frederic C. Howe, on the City as a Socializing Agency, in which he lays emphasis on the physical basis of the city plan, his contention being that in America thus far we have been care takers rather than architects, and that our cities may be likened to the business man who neglects his factory in his efforts to perfect his system of bookkeeping. Too little attention has been given in America to the city plan. The laying out of streets for a city Mr. Howe believes is worthy of as much thought as the planning of a cathedral. In America we have failed to regard the city as a permanent thing, and have given no attention to its site, to the site of buildings, parks, etc., planned in advance of the city's needs. We have neglected its plumbing and at the same time its superstructure, all of which are matters of community concern.

The second paper is on the Urban Habit of Mind, by Howard B. Woolston, of the College of the City of New York. Mr. Woolston pleads for the recognition on the part of the citizens that the city is more than a place, a corporation, or a political unit,—that in reality it is a spiritual unit, "growing, enlarging, and striving for a realization of an adjusted order in which all men may share."

The third article, by Jane Addams, is on Recreation as a Public Function in Urban Communities. In this paper Miss Addams maintains that the comradeship that grows out of the opportunities of the athletic field may become the basis for a new citizenship.

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Municipal Cleanliness and Sanitation.—The movement for municipal cleanliness and sanitation is rapidly gaining strength, and, in Washington, D. C., found expression in the city cleaning week designated by the commissioner for April 15–20. Baltimore is undergoing a thorough renovating under the stimulus of the Women's Civic League, which has declared relentless war against waste, flies, smoke and improper refuse disposal. The workers of the League have been organized as "walkers" and "talkers," carrying the campaign to the doors of the citizens. In Chicago, the Woman's City Club is conducting an effective campaign for city cleanliness by conducting a photographic contest for which amateur photographers under twenty years of age submitting Chicastreets in good and bad condition and school buildings that are what they should be and those that are not. The New York School Hygiene Association has outlined a definite program for school sanitation. It calls for discontinuance of the common drinking cup; for the substitution of moist for dry sweeping; for specific rules as to methods of cleaning and sanitation of school buildings;

for three lessons a week in hygiene for grammar grades instead of one as heretofore, and for adequate instruction in normal and training schools in methods of teaching personal and social hygiene.

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Denver Civic Parade.—*Denver Municipal Facts*, in its issue of May 11, gives a graphic account of the Denver civic parade, held May 8. Although many European cities have been holding similar parades as a means of educating the citizen and tax-payer in regard to governmental matters and to stimulate civic pride, Denver is the first city in America to carry out the idea to complete proportions. The parade was three and a half miles long, completely presenting the activities of the city, its departments and the county of Denver. It was a great lesson in the amount of work being done by the city, the number of men and women and pieces of equipment it requires to conduct the affairs of the government, and in general the progress that has been made in the past few years along municipal lines. A great civic parade was one of the unique features of the National Municipal League's meeting in Los Angeles, July 8–12.

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International Movement for the Beautification of Cities.—A popular booklet in French has been recently issued dealing with the international movement for the beautification of cities. The booklet which is by Georges Benoit-Levy is entitled La Ville et son Image and its seventy pages are profuse with maps and photographs of landscape work in the United States, Great Britain and Europe. Besides the popular presentation of much recent material concerning particularly American conditions there is a section of valuable references to the leading authorities on the new landscape art both here and abroad. The movement in England is given particular mention and one entire chapter is devoted to the playground movement in the American cities. The booklet brings out in a striking way international unity in developing the health and beauty of our cities.

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Voluntary Idleness in Berlin.—On March 4, the Kommunalkommission of the Prussian Herrenhaus made a report on the proposed law for the regulation of voluntary idleness and failure to provide. During the discussion of the report on March 7, the mayor of Berlin made the statement that the number of the voluntary idle is perhaps nowhere as great as it is in Berlin. Over 5000 persons are accommodated nightly in the municipal refuge. Upon being put to vote, a majority voted in favor of the measure. In the event of its becoming a law, it will be operative on October 1.

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Philadelphia Vice Commission.—On June 1, Mayor Blankenburg, of Philadelphia, announced the appointment of a commission of twenty-one citizens, with William Clarke Mason, Esq., chairman, to study the problem of vice in Philadelphia and to make recommendations for minimizing or eliminating the evil in the city.

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Texas Housing Problem is the title of "a study of physical conditions under which the other half lives," reprinted from the *Galveston-Dallas News* in November and December of last year. These newspapers have done a splendid work in bringing to the attention of the residents of Texas cities the actual housing conditions existing in them.

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Chicago Summer School of Civics.—The Chicago Summer School of Civics and Philanthropy, of which Prof. Graham Taylor is director, opened on June 24 and will continue to July 26. The sessions will be devoted particularly to Community Coöperation for Social Service.

Landscape Architecture and Civic Problems.—Phelps Wyman, of Minneapolis, has issued a pamphlet on Landscape Architecture, its Application to Civic and Semi-Public Problems, which combines in a happy way art and commercialism.

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The Public Recreation League of Boston is making a novel attempt to popularize the public parks of the city by conducting a series of informal Saturday afternoon walks and outings in the parks of Boston and vicinity.

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Recreation Centers.—The Playground for April contains a detailed statement concerning recreation centers in the leading states and cities of the country. It also contains a list of the available playground workers.

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Personal Mention.—E. O. Edgerton has resigned as secretary of the Los Angeles Municipal League to accept an appointment at the hands of Governor Johnson as a member of the new state board of public utilities. Charles D. Willard has been elected to succeed to the vacancy. The many friends of Mr. Willard will be delighted to learn that his health will permit him to reassume the position which he filled with so much usefulness and credit.

Howard Strong has been elected general secretary of the Cleveland Municipal Civic and Commerce Association which represents the merger of several business bodies into one strong, vigorous organization. Mr. Strong for ten years has been an assistant secretary of the Cleveland Chamber of Commerce.

Frederic C. Howe, former State Senator of Ohio, author of *The City, the Hope of Democracy* has been elected director of the People's Institute of New York in succession to the late Charles Sprague Smith.

The withdrawal of Robert C. Brooks, professor of political science, from the faculty of the University of Cincinnati to return to Swarthmore College has brought forth expressions of universal regret from the student body of the University of Cincinnati. The *University Weekly News* refers to the loss of the University: "He has resigned, his resignation has been accepted, and still we shout out opposition to it."

Frank G. Henderson, former secretary of Mayor Alexander of Los Angeles, has been appointed a member of the public service commission of Los Angeles to fill the vacancy caused by the resignation of Parley M. Johnson. The appointment is a promotion for the merit Mr. Henderson manifested as secretary to the mayor.

Among the appointments made by Governor Johnson of California has been that of Dr. John R. Haynes of Los Angeles as a member of the state board of charities. Dr. Haynes is one of California's best known public men, and has been conspicuously identified with the movement for direct legislation and perfection of a direct primary system for his state.

On an indictment charging him with taking money unlawfully in connection with a paving contract while chief executive, Mayor Edwin W. Packer of Long Branch was fined $500 and costs by the court after pleading non vult.

At Richmond, President Foulke of the National Municipal League referred to the splendid work which had been done by Dr. Adickes, the mayor of Frankfort, Germany. Whereupon, the Hon. Walter L. Fisher, secretary of the interior, who was presiding, said: "I do not know that it will help to explain the problem which President Foulke has been discussing this evening, but perhaps it will interest him and you, as it has me, to know that Dr. Adickes, the Ober Burgermeister of Frankfort, is a member in regular and ordinary standing of the National Municipal League."

Professor Frank Greene Bates, formerly of the University of Kansas, has been appointed associate professor of economics in Indiana University. He is to take charge of the work in municipal government which is to be materially extended, and also of the bureau of municipal research, which is to be established at the state library in Indianapolis.

The Kansas City civil service commission has been entirely reconstructed by Mayor Yost who recently assumed office. The term of one of the members of the board expired, and the other two were removed for refusing to comply with the mayor's request that they should withdraw certain certifications of men who had passed the civil service examination and were suing for the commission to which they and the civil service commission thought they were legally entitled. The removal of Messrs. John H. Thatcher and James W. Peters can only be regarded in the light of a misfortune for they had worked hard and with great success to establish the merit system permanently and intelligently in Kansas City. There is no indication that the mayor's action was intended to destroy the merit system, for his new appointees are excellent men, but they cannot hope to equal for some time to come the effective work which Messrs. Thatcher and Peters did.

BOOK REVIEWS

City Government by Commission. Edited by Clinton Rogers Woodruff. New York: D. Appleton and Company. $1.50.

Commission Government in American Cities. Ernest S Bradford, Ph.D. New York: The Macmillan Company. $1.25.

Commission Government Number of "The Annals." November, 1911. Issued by the American Academy of Political and Social Science. Philadelphia. $1.00.

Clinton Rogers Woodruff's book on *City Government by Commission,* the first volume of the series undertaken by the National Municipal League, makes an admirable campaign textbook for the use of commission government partisans. It is rather surprising that a book which, in so marked a degree argues in favor of commission government should be the first of the National Municipal League series, seeing that the League is not at all committed to the new plan. One would at least have expected a less one-sided discussion of the subject. Mr. Woodruff is the editor of this volume and himself writes ten of the chapters. The other contributions are taken from the proceedings of the National Municipal League. The editor should have contented himself with arranging the material in logical order and filling in when necessary. Mr. Woodruff's first three chapters, for example, might well have been omitted. The articles by Professor Munro, Mr. Ryan, and Dr. Bradford afford a sufficient introduction to the subject.

The popular arguments for commission government, as stated by Mr. Woodruff, are cogent and pointed Especially strong are the paragraphs dealing with its representative character. The case of the opponents is not, however, as adequately stated as one would like. Extracts from an extemporaneous discussion of the subject are hardly suitable as a thorough presentation of the other side. Mr. Wilcox's objections are largely theoretical. He disbelieves in the union of legislative and executive power in the same hands, but does not give reasons which are convincing. The analogy between a city and a business corporation, however, he disposes of in short order, by showing that in practical operation, the directors of corporations, except certain small ones, are mere figureheads. The analogy still further loses its force when we recall that the functions of a city government are largely public and governmental, and thus totally different from those of a business corporation. The article, entitled "Applicable to Large Cities" calls up a very pertinent question with regard to government by commission. Mr. Deming believes that the objects sought in commission government, viz., simplicity, directness, and concentration of responsibility, can be secured in some other way than by the adoption of the commission plan. Boston rejected the commission plan and yet accomplished substantially the same objects. On the other hand Mr. Mixer has unlimited faith in the applicability of commission government to any and all cities. To cite Washington as an example of commission government, is, however, hardly correct, since in Washington the commissioners of the District of Columbia act under the strict control of Congress. The New York board of estimate and apportionment is not analogous, since it is very largely a financial body, and has no administrative powers, even though its members hold executive and administrative offices. An elective board of aldermen also has something to say about New York City's finances.

Admiral Chadwick's article on the Newport plan is properly included as offering an apparently successful alternative to commission government more in line with our traditional ideas. The chapters on the results of commission government are open to the criticism that they lay undue emphasis upon financial achievements and increased public improvements. It will be noticed that nearly all of these cities seem to have at once launched out upon extensive programs of municipal improvements. This is an excellent way, of course, to impress the popular imagination with the success of the new plan of government. One would like to see a more detailed account of the results in practical administration in the police and fire departments, the health department, and in the departments of street-cleaning and garbage disposal.

A book of this kind has its inherent limitations. We perhaps rather hastily called it a campaign text-book. It is at least designed to make a popular appeal and therefore cannot afford to be too analytical and scientific. We would have liked to have seen, however, a little more extended account of the various forms which the commission idea has assumed throughout the country, and a more definite and authoritative answer to the question most frequently asked concerning the commission plan—"Does it work well?"

Dr. Bradford's book, entitled, *Commission Government in American Cities*, is written in thoroughly scholarly fashion. The treatment is elaborate in detail but the details are well managed. Part 1 is historical, geographical, and descriptive. The development of commission government from the Galveston experiment to the present is traced; its rapid progress from city to city, and state to state, is shown; and the various forms in which it appears are described. Dr. Bradford has explained in a most careful and painstaking way, the various adaptations which each city has made of the commission plan.

Part 2 of the book is analytical. The essential principles of city government by commission are set forth, following which the various cities are compared with reference to the working out of those principles. Such questions as the size of the commission, whether wholly or partly renewed at one time, the advantages of election at large, the amount of time given by the commissioners to the duties of their offices and the concentration of municipal authority are critically discussed.

The final chapters are given to a consideration of the various checks upon the power of the commission. Public opinion is the ultimate check. But to facilitate the action of public opinion, many commission charters include initiative, referendum, recall, non-partisan primaries, nomination by petition, etc. Most charters contain publicity features and civil service provisions. All of these devices are analyzed and their efficacy as checks upon the arbitrary exercise of power appraised.

Up to the present, according to Dr. Bradford, the results of commission government have been everywhere satisfactory. The definite location of responsibility has greatly improved the financial condition of cities; while in the fields of public health and police administration, civic beautification projects, etc., substantial progress is apparent. The influence of political parties has evidently been reduced to a minimum and a genuine popular interest in municipal affairs awakened. In the last chapter but one, Dr. Bradford has stated in five pages a few of the principal objections to city government by commission. It would seem as if more space should have been given to the opposing arguments and, insofar as Dr. Bradford has failed to present adequately the other side, his book is slightly open to the charge of partiality.

Dr. Clyde King, of the University of Pennsylvania, has performed a distinctly meritorious service in collecting and editing the admirable series of articles contained in the November issue of the *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science.* The men who write these articles, for the most part, possess first hand acquaintance with the operation of commission government in their own states and cities. This local flavor adds considerably to the interest and value of the series. The volume opens with a number of articles on the underlying principles of commission government and its operation in several states and cities. Especially valuable as tracing the earliest development of the commission plan is the contribution of Prof. William Scroggs, entitled "Commission Government in the South." That the commission idea did not originate in Galveston is revealed by Professor Scroggs' description of government by commission as it existed in New Orleans from 1872 to 1882; in Mobile from 1879 to 1887; and in Memphis from 1882 to 1891. In all these cases the commission expedient seems to have been adopted as a last resort against impending bankruptcy. The outcome in each case was a decided improvement in financial conditions.

In part two several specific problems of commission government are dealt with. Dr. Delos F. Wilcox presents a complete and modern franchise policy which, however, has no special application to commission government. L. G. Powers, of the United States census bureau, writes concerning "Budget Provisions in Commission-Governed Cities." His plea is for complete, lucid, and intelligible budgets as the most effective means of keeping the people in close touch with their government. This, however, can be equally well accomplished under the usual type of municipal government.

Elliot H. Goodwin, secretary of the National Civil Service Reform League, says that only seven of the eighteen states which have passed laws for commission government, have incorporated the merit system, and only about one-third of the commission charters have civil service provisions. Mr. Goodwin believes that such provisions should be a part of every commission charter. Complete reliance for good appointments cannot be placed in the integrity or sense of responsibility of the members of the commission. To obviate control of the civil service commissioners by the city commission, the civil service could be made a state affair.

In part three Messrs. Cooper, Carpenter and Holly state their objections to the commission idea. The former dislikes the combination of legislative and executive authority in the same persons and advocates a complete separation of the two departments, which obviously would make necessary some sort of political party organization in order to produce a unified municipal policy. The second gentleman is in sympathy with the commission idea, but laments the fact that in Colorado Springs, of which city he particularly writes, the new charter has failed to induce first rate men to run for office. On the whole the case against commission government is hardly better stated than in the books of Messrs. Woodruff and Bradford.

This number of the *Annals* is the most satisfactory treatment of commission government yet published. The subject is not approached with Dr. Bradford's spirit of investigation and analysis. But, on the other hand, more sources of information are drawn upon and a wider range of opinion reflected. These articles bring one into intimate touch with commission government and its present problems, and in that fact their chief value lies.

Francis W. Dickey.

Western Reserve University.

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The Referendum in America, Together with Some Chapters on the Initiative and the Recall. By Ellis Paxson Oberholtzer. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1911, pp. xii, 533.

This is a new edition of the author's well-known book on the referendum which appeared a dozen years ago. But it is not a revised edition. The first fifteen chapters are reprinted just as they appeared in the earlier issue and to these are added four new chapters (covering about 150 pages) which deal with the working of the initiative and referendum during the last decade, with the recall, and with the relations of direct legislation to representative government.

When Dr. Oberholtzer's work was first placed at the disposal of students it received a cordial reception, and deservedly so, for there was little available on the subject at the time and the historical chapters of the book were of great value. They were accurate, inclusive, and well-written. As much cannot be said, however, of the supplementary chapters in the new edition. The discussion of direct legislation during the years 1900–1911 is not adequately comprehensive nor has the author been able to trace the spread of the initiative and referendum during this later period with the clarity which marked his earlier chapters. The twenty-six pages on "The Local Referendum" are particularly unsatisfying, for they contain little more than a *mélange* of odds and ends in the way of facts and figures drawn from all over the country. These facts and figures are presumably correct and they may have, in the municipalities to which they relate, some local interest. But in a general discussion such as that which the author undertakes they serve no end but to dishearten the reader.

In his chapter on "TheReferendum vs. The Representative System" we have Dr. Oberholtzer's present-day views on the new democracy. Few men have better equipped themselves by observation and study for expressing authoritative opinions in this field of contemporary political discussion; but what the author has to say in his concluding pages is rather disappointing. There is an absence of that power of sober and dispassionate analysis which showed itself so plainly in Dr. Oberholtzer's writings of ten or twelve years ago and which commended the first edition of the present work so favorably to serious students. The new chapters are reactionary in tone and some of the author's conclusions are drawn from data which many of us would regard as clearly inadequate. Extracts from the writings of avowed partisans are incorporated freely, and the implication is conveyed to the reader that these fairly reflect the views of men well qualified to pass judgment upon the system of direct legislation as it has been working in Oregon and elsewhere (pp. 503–507). If the author intended his concluding chapters to be merely a partisan presentation of the case against the initiative, referendum and recall, his pages will doubtless pass muster as such. In the preface of the book he professes a desire to correct misapprehensions concerning his own personal attitude toward direct legislation. That desire, he may rest assured, has been adequately fulfilled. It is to be regretted, however, that Dr. Oberholtzer could not have found space and sympathy for some at least of the arguments in favor of the new weapons of democracy. To ignore these is not to answer them, nor does such policy fully satisfy an author's obligations toward his own readers.

William Bennett Munro.

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Proceedings of the National Conference of Charities and Correction. Thirty-eighth Annual Session, held in Boston, Mass., June 7–14, 1911. Edited by Alexander Johnson.

The *Report of the Proceedings of the National Conference* lay on the reviewer's table, and a member of the household glanced at it with the remark, "That looks terribly dry!" It is to be feared that many of the persons who ought to know what it contains will fail to read it for just that reason. There is something appalling in the very title "*Proceedings*," and if the book could be published under some other, it would find a wider reception. But it is not dry. If one only can be induced to read the president's address, by that veteran social worker, Homer Folks, he will realize that the things which were discussed in Boston are the very things which the average citizen is thinking about now, often with an uneasy feeling that he knows very little about them and knows not where to turn for authoritative information. Indeed the average citizen ought to be acquainted with what Frederick Howard Wines tells in his address on county jails, and what Mrs. Kelley says about minimum wage boards, and what Jacob A. Riis says about bad housing; he needs to hear, for his encouragement, of what is being done with delinquents and criminals in Cleveland and Indianapolis and Kansas City, experiments of constraining interest. He ought to read Dr. Devine's "Social Program," and a dozen other papers which space will not permit one even to name. These are all written by experts, and are the fruit of close and long contact with actual conditions; there is little abstract theorizing, for the men and women who speak have learned their subjects by working with humanity, and not from books.

Occasionally, the treatment of a subject seems to be one-sided, and this is particularly the case in the important question of sex hygiene, which was touched upon by the conference only at one point and from one angle. The paper on venereal disease, by Dr. Frederic Bierkoff of New York, does not represent the best conclusions of investigators in this field, either in its bold proclamation that society must deliberately provide for the satisfaction of sexual desire out of wedlock, nor in its consequent plan of "segregated" districts where prostitution shall be permitted, with medical inspection as a safeguard against disease.

A new committee appears in the list of those who prepared the program for the Conference, namely, that on "The Church and Social Work." It is a hopeful sign when such a subject is brought definitely before the gathered social workers of the nation, and the nine papers which the committee presents, including its report, made by the chairman, Dr. Washington Gladden, are all worthy of attention. They are all thoughtful and abreast of the times, and the writers have been chosen to represent the differing elements of the religious forces of the nation with admirable impartiality.

Not the least stimulating part of the volume, is in the brief reports from the states, in which the progress of the year is noted. On the whole, the reports are encouraging, particularly those which relate to increased care for the public health. This phase of social work has laid hold upon public interest more, perhaps, than any other. There is still need of education to make men realize that the moral contagions are more subtle and more deadly than the germs that produce physical disease.

George Lynde Richardson.
Philadelphia.

* * *

The Width and Arrangement of Streets. By Charles Mulford Robinson. The Engineering News Publishing Company of New York. $2.00.

When one contemplates the stupid fashion in which streets are engineered in most American cities at the present time and their utter lack of adaptation to the new and additional burdens placed upon them in our increasing population and with our changed transportation facilities, it seems remarkable that a work such as Mr. Robinson has given us did not long ago appear and become a standard of reference.

Under the curious and unreasonable construction which prevails in most American cities that there is no jurisdiction over outlying territory, not within the city's limits, many communities are faced with fearful and wonderful arrangements of streets, utterly unfit to be taken in as part of an organized system. These are the results of real estate planning, without any reference whatever to any other object than the selling of the most lots, of the smallest size, at the highest price, in many instances.

The difference in treatment one finds abroad is significant. It is assumed in German cities, for instance, that the town has a right to know what is to be done on the land which it is later to take under its wing.

Mr. Robinson's book comes as part of the growing movement for sane town making, and is an admirable presentation of its subject in brief and easily comprehensible form. Comparisons are made and instances provided which ought to give the intelligent student opportunity to do his own community good service.

The divisions of the book make it easy to quickly refer to any particular part of this important subject. To many thoughtless makers of streets there will be something new in the suggestion that streets may be standardized unwisely, and that there is a relation between street width and housing as well as between street width and land values. The discussion of main traffic streets and suggestions as to how to lessen the excessive cost of the wide streets with which many American cities have thoughtlessly saddled themselves, is comprehensive.

One chapter discusses the provision of central control of street making, and three chapters take up the planting of minor streets for residence purposes. The relation of public reservations other than streets to the articulate frame of the city occupies an important chapter.

The illustrations presented are not as many in number as might have been desired, although they are very much to the point. The physical character of the book is rather in unpleasant contrast to Mr. Robinson's previous excellently designed books. It is unfortunate that there should be any mechanical lack in a work itself so important.

The book as a whole is very heartily commended as a practical and valuable adjunct in doing the best with all community extensions and in modern city planning.

J. Horace McFarland.
Harrisburg, Pa.

* * *

The American Year Book, 1911. New York and London: D. Appleton and Company, 1912; pp. xx, 863.

The second annual volume of the *American Year Book* continues on the same general lines the work so well begun in the volume for 1910, but with many modifications in detail. Several additions have been made to the list of learned and technical societies represented on the supervising body, which now numbers 38. Dr. S. N. D. North has retired as managing editor; and his place has been taken by Mr. Francis G. Wickware. A good many changes appear in the list of contributors, which has been increased to a total of 119. The main divisions and most of the chapter headings remain as before; but some new subjects have been introduced, a few have been dropped and others rearranged. There are new chapters in problems of population, foreign history, public health and hygiene, and public services.

A considerable part of the book deals with municipal problems. Clinton Rogers Woodruff writes the chapter on municipal government, which discusses new city charters, municipal research, municipal accounting, city planning, congestion and housing, vice investigations, police, fire and fire prevention, nuisances and municipal associations. In addition, many of the other chapters contain sections on municipal matters. The chapter on social economy and social questions considers parks and playgrounds, regulation of amusements, housing and city-planning, and the liquor problem. The chapter on public services includes accounts of public service commissions, municipal ownership, lighting, water supply and sewage disposal; and several of these topics are also noted in the chapter on engineering. There are also sections dealing with municipal civil service, state and local finance, docks, wharves and water fronts, and urban school systems. On all these subjects the reader will find the work a valuable source of reference and information on some of the latest developments in this country.

The *Year Book* as a whole performs a distinctly useful service; and the attention given to municipal affairs is as much as could be expected in a general work of this sort. It does not, however, fill the place of such specialized annuals as the *Municipal Year Book of the United Kingdom* or the *Kommunales Jahrbuch* for German Cities; and there is still need for a work similar to these dealing with the progress of cities in the United States.

John A. Fairlie.
University of Illinois.

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The City School as a Community Center. The Rural School as a Community Center. Being Parts I and II of the Eleventh Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. Pp. 78 and 75. Published by the University of Chicago Press. 1911. Price $0.78 each, postpaid.

Previous to 1900 there was in the United States little effort to use the public schools as community centers. The decade from 1900 to 1910 was marked by a rapid advance in the education of public opinion in favor of such use and by experimentation in a few favored centers of population. The decade from 1910 to 1920 promises to be one of widespread development in the utilization of the school plant for various community purposes.

The two parts of the 1911 Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education include accounts of typical experiments that have been tried in various parts of the country along these lines. The purpose of these accounts is to enable other communities to learn of the possibilities and difficulties of putting into practice what has already been achieved in some of the most advanced communities.

The contributors to the volumes are specialists who have made conspicuous success in organizing the various phases of community activity which they discuss. They have described in a concrete way the extent and character of the work carried on under their direction, giving methods employed, results secured, concrete incidents, difficulties, criticisms, suggestions, and comparisons with similar work in other communities.

The topics discussed in the city book are adult education, public lectures, vacation playgrounds, organized athletics, evening recreation centers, civic and social centers, and home and school associations. The contributors are H. M. Leipziger, C. A. Perry, Sarah E. Hyre, R. D. Warden, C. W. Crampton, E. W. Stitt, E. J. Ward, and Mrs. E. C. Grice.

The topics discussed in the rural book are community work in the agricultural high school and in district schools, rural school extension through boys' and girls' agricultural clubs and in relation to better housekeeping, rural school libraries, development of an appreciation of art through rural schools, and organized recreation in rural schools. The contributors are E. C. Crockeron, Miss Jessie Field, F. W. Howe, E. C. Bishop, A. B. Graham, O. J. Kern, M. T. Scudder and B. M. Davis.

S. Chester Parker.
The University of Chicago.

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The American Government. By Frederic J. Haskins. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company. $1.00 net.

In the preface to this volume Mr. Haskins says: "It is not designed as a treatise on the science of government, nor as an exposition of the political structure of the United States. It is, rather, an effort to tell in the ordinary language of everyday life what the government does and how it does it."

With this clearly defined purpose in mind the author has further presumed an almost total ignorance of the details of administrative government on the part of the reader, and has then proceeded, by means of bold and often extravagant figurative language, and generous blocks of highly colored descriptive matter, to draw a sweeping and vivid sketch of the external appearance of the governmental machine. The treatment is in no sense analytical, and far from exhaustive; but it does afford an extraordinarily clear and succinct account of the more evident features of the various departments and bureaus of the government.

The statistics are given in the form of striking comparisons which sometimes approach the picturesque. The following paragraph, taken from the chapter on the Panama Canal, which is perhaps the most interesting part of the book, shows how the author uses this scheme to gain his effects:

> It took the French as many years to discover that they could not build a 15-foot canal as it will take the United States to make a finished waterway 40 feet deep; and it cost the French as much to make a failure of their project as it will cost the United States to make a success of its undertaking.

The constant use of such methods of exposition tends to arouse a doubt as to the accuracy of statement; but it is this device that attracts and holds one's attention, and which makes the book more like a novel and less like a text-book.

To the taxpayer who wonders where his money goes, it should prove a source of great satisfaction, and may, in fact cause him to wonder why he is not required to contribute more to the maintenance of this complex organization. To the merely curious, who are unable to understand the functions of the various departments, it should, despite the lack of a detailed index and suitable subheadings, prove a mine of information.

Oswald Ryan.
Harvard University.

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The Wider Use of the School Plant. By Clarence Arthur Perry. Charities Publication Committee, New York. $1.25.

The re-issue of this book is welcome, as Mr. Perry's work is not only the standard book of reference on the wider use of the school plant, but is the sole book of reference as yet in existence. The book, from a descriptive standpoint, is substantially up-to-date. Probably if it were re-written today a stronger emphasis would be laid on the ideas of democracy, of civics, and of the development of the school as a community and family institution rather than an extension school for various classes and age groups among the people. That is to say, the book would reflect the social center inspiration which has become nation-wide and has resulted in nation-wide organization during the past year. But this inspiration has not yet expressed itself in definite results and the book, though written from an anterior standpoint, is descriptively up-to-date.

Mr. Perry deals, sympathetically and accurately, with three main developments of the public schools: (1) special classes and formal instruction after school hours; (2) recreational activities after school hours in the school building, especially for young people; (3) the use of the school building as a civic center, of which the Rochester experiment is the noteworthy example. Mr. Perry's method is to describe vividly and fully a typical activity along one of the above lines and then to mention the significant developments of similar kind both in this country and abroad.

A good sense of proportion is evident throughout the book; its author has evidently certain broad theoretical principles which he keeps carefully in hand, but his se'ection of material is made always from the standpoint of the inquiring mind interested in a local problem of school development. As a handbook of comparative research this volume is quite necessary to any student of American school problems.

John Collier.

New York.

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Highway Engineering. As presented at the Second International Road Congress, Brussels, 1910. By Arthur H. Blanchard and Henry B. Drowne. New York: John Wiley and Sons. Cloth; 6 x 9 ins.; pp. 299. $2.

The first International Road Congress was held at Paris in 1908, and the second at Brussels in 1910. At the latter there were 2118 members from 38 countries in attendance and 124 papers and reports were presented and discussed.

The authors of this book have rendered a valuable service by compressing into 300 pages the meat of the 2200 pages of official *Proceedings*, published by the Permanent International Association of Road Congresses (Albert Neahieu, Secrétaire-Général des Bureau Exécutif de l'Association Internationale Permanente des Congrès de la Route, Paris, France). Among the many topics discussed at the Brussels Congress these may be named: economics and materials of highway engineering; road foundations and drainage; gravel, water-bound, and bituminous-bound macadam; brick, concrete, stone block and wood block pavements; street maintenance, including cleaning, watering, and removal of snow and ice; road signs; public service conveyances; highway bridges; and automobile tires. Special mention should be made of the few pages on "Dust Prevention by the Use of Palliatives" and the "Conclusions Adopted by the Congress." The papers and discussions under each topic are arranged by the country of the participant, and the names of the participants are given. These names include a number of well-known American highway engineers.

While the proceedings as a whole were conducted by engineers, and for engineers, a large part if not all of the contents of the volume before us is well within the easy understanding of any intelligent person and would be of interest and value to municipal and state officials and to public-spirited citizens generally who desire to be informed on road and street construction and maintenance.

M. N. Baker.

Montclair, N. J.

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Children's Gardens for Pleasure, Health and Education. By Henry G. Parsons. New York. Sturgis and Walton Company.

Teachers, settlement workers, village and civic improvement associations will acknowledge their indebtedness to Mr. Parsons for the simple concise guide for a practical plan for children's gardens that he has presented from his full experience in DeWitt Clinton Park in New York.

The author makes no pretense of reaching out into the highways and byways; he plainly states in his preface, "that it seemed wise to adhere to the type of garden in which ideas and methods to be shown were developed." This brings us to a fair consideration of this attractively illustrated little book, whose fitly chosen photographs leave nothing to be interpreted between the lines.

The application of training takes precedence over the practice and shows by a series of paragraphs, comprising nine short chapters, that lessons of health, wealth, and happiness following in the wake of pure air, economy, and play may be derived from observation in the garden and create and instil in the young mind "the dignity and honor of manual labor."

In the first ten chapters of the second part from the "General Equipment, Care of Tools, and Remarks" to the "Work After Planting" there is an attention to detail that will appeal to all those who want to know precisely the *modus operandi*. It literally covers the question from seed time to harvest, and what's more fills in the interim between the sowing of the seed and the first crack made in the soil by the embryo plant.

Sunlight, air, water, soil, earthworms and about a half dozen other specials bring you to the end of this pocketable sized, inexpensive book that you can take to the garden, "read, mark, learn, and inwardly digest."

H. Marie Dermitt.

Pittsburgh, Pa.

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Hazell's Annual for 1912. Edited by Hammond Hall. London: Hazell, Watson and Viney, Ltd.

This is one of the standard books of reference that one must have at hand, if one is to keep fully abreast of the times. The present volume, the twenty-seventh in the series, contains 7000 references, mainly British. It affords an admirable complement to the American *Year Book* (see page 525).

The population figures are interesting. On April 2, 1911, the population of the United Kingdom stood at 45,216,665, an increase of 9.1 per cent for the decade. The figures for London (4,522,961) show a decrease of 0.3 per cent. The only other English city showing a decrease is Halifax. According to the *Annual* "generally there is a marked decline in the rate of growth of the large towns as compared with that in the previous decennial period." It is pointed out, however, that a falling off in the rate of increase does not necessarily imply any decline in prosperity. As the population resident within the boundaries of the town approaches "more and more nearly that destiny which under the local circumstances may be regarded as the point of saturation, the tendency is for further increase to slacken within and probably to accelerate without, the town limits, simply because there is less and less room left within for new buildings. The growth of large urban communities can only be measured by considering jointly the population of the central area and of all its suburbs."

The *Annual* contains a good outline of the housing and town planning act of 1910, and some interesting facts concerning the "compensation features" of the recent liquor legislation.

C. R. W.

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The Boy and His Gang. By J. Adams Puffer, Director of Beacon Vocation Bureau. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.

"Good citizens are sometimes quite as much the product of good gangs, as of good schools or good homes." In this final sentence Mr. Puffer indicates the importance of the subject which he treats to every one who is interested in the improvement of municipal government, to the study of which it is a distinct contribution. He shows that the "gang" instinct is not only the product of uncounted generations of heredity, and so inevitable, and therefore to be reckoned with, but that, properly directed, and given legitimate expression, it has extremely valuable educational possibilities.

The pressing necessity of a general awakening to the facts which he has set down is suggested by the appalling statement that "about one boy out of every five in most of our large cities is arrested before the age of twenty-one." Is this the best our cities can do for their boys? And can citizenship be raised to its highest level under such conditions?

Mr. Puffer's careful study of sixty-six separate gangs brings out much that is important, even though many of his conclusions do not differ from those of previous investigators. His recommendations to parents, teachers and social workers are sensible, practical and sympathetic. He is especially urgent about the need of public play-grounds, athletic fields and swimming pools; and gives unreserved approval to the Boy Scout movement.

George Lynde Richardson.

Philadelphia.

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Sociology and Modern Social Problems. By Prof. Chas. A. Ellwood of the University of Missouri.

A volume in text book style of some three hundred pages contains up-to-date and readable material of interest to students of city life. While the book is intended as an elementary text in sociology for pupils giving a short time to the subject, it contains a number of chapters on special American problems viewed in the light of sociological principles. The chapters on "Immigration," "The Negro," "The Problem of the City," "Socialism in the Light of Social Theory" and "Educational Progress" are full of facts and summaries of conclusions. The chapter on "The Problem of the City" deals chiefly with the city as a social factor in its influence on the individual and on social institutions. An admirable summary of remedies for the evils of city life is given. The book is an especially good one to put in the hands of beginners interested in civic or social work.

Roger N. Baldwin.

St. Louis.

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Municipal Civics. By Albert A. Giesecke, Ph.D. Volume 5 of the Cornell Study Bulletins for Teachers.

This volume fulfills the modest purpose of indicating concisely, with abundant references, the elementary facts which a teacher of civics should know. Likewise, through questions, it invites on the part of the student the kind of thought which, if followed out, will give conviction and personality to the teacher's knowledge.

The value of a book written as a guide to the teacher in acquiring elementary knowledge and in distributing that knowledge evenly through the various branches of his subject, may be questioned. Certainly, such a volume tends to standardize the ability of the teacher by leading the mediocre teacher to acquire the essential knowledge. The exceptional teacher would tend to vault entirely over a book of this sort. As for the poorly educated teacher, it is perhaps doubtful whether he would experience a very vivid awakening of interest through reading Professor Giesecke's book.

John Collier.

New York.

BOOKS RECEIVED

CHANGING AMERICA. Edward Alsworth Ross. New York: The Century Company. $1.20 net.

FIRST READER FOR FOREIGNERS. Mary F. Sharpe .New York: American Book Company.

GOVERNMENT BY COMMISSION, OR THE DETHRONEMENT OF THE CITY BOSS. John J. Hamilton. New York: Funk and Wagnalls Company. $1.20.

HAPPY HUMANITY. Frederik Van Eeden. New York: Doubleday, Page and Company. $1.25, postage 15 cents.

THE HISTORY OF LOCAL RATES IN ENGLAND. Edwin Cannan. London: P. S. King and Son. Pp. 215. 3s. 6d. net.

LANDSCAPE GARDENING STUDIES. Samuel Parsons. New York: John Lane Company. $1.50.

LAW OF LIGHT. R. G. Nicholson Combe. Philadelphia: Cromarty Law Book Company.

LITTLE STORIES OF ENGLAND. Maud Barrows Dutton. New York: American Book Company.

LONDON CHAMBER OF COMMERCE. Thirtieth Annual Report. 1911.

A NEW CONSCIENCE AND AN ANCIENT EVIL. Jane Addams. New York: The Macmillan Company. $1.00.

NEW DEMANDS IN EDUCATION. James Phinney Munroe. New York: Doubleday, Page and Company. $1.25.

NEW YORK CHARITIES DIRECTORY: A CLASSIFIED AND DESCRIPTIVE DIRECTORY OF THE SOCIAL, CIVIC AND RELIGIOUS RESOURCES OF NEW YORK. Twenty-first Edition. Published by the Charity Organization of New York. 1912.

PRACTICAL METHODS OF SEWAGE DISPOSAL, FOR RESIDENCES, HOTELS AND INSTITUTIONS. Henry N. Ogden and H. Burdett Cleveland. New York: John Wiley and Sons. Pp. 132, 52 figs. $1.50 net.

THE REGULATION OF MUNICIPAL UTILITIES. Edited by Clyde L. King. New York: D. Appleton and Company. $1.50 net.

SEWAGE DISPOSAL. George W. Fuller. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company. 1912. $6.00.

SHORT TALKS. Nos. 1 to 7. National Fund for Promoting Efficient Municipal Accounting and Reporting. New York.

SMOKE, A STUDY OF TOWN AIR. Julius B. Cohen and Arthur G. Rushton. New York: Longmans, Green and Company. $1.40 net.

THE SOCIAL EVIL. A report with special reference to conditions existing in the city of New York. Second Edition. Edited by Edwin R. E. Seligman. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

STATE AND LOCAL TAXATION. Fifth Annual Conference. Under the auspices of the National Tax Association, held at Richmond, Va., September 5 to 8, 1911. Addresses and Proceedings. Columbus, Ohio: National Tax Association. 1912.

WACKER'S MANUAL OF THE PLAN OF CHICAGO. Municipal Economy. Specially prepared for study in the schools of Chicago, under the auspices of the Chicago Plan Commission, by Walter D. Moody. 1912.

Teachers' Handbook for same.

CONCENTRATION AND CONTROL: A SOLUTION OF THE TRUST PROBLEM IN THE UNITED STATES. Charles R. Van Hise. New York: The Macmillan Company. $2.00 net.

THE INITIATIVE, REFERENDUM AND RECALL. Edited by William Bennett Munro. New York: D. Appleton and Company. $1.50 net.

THE VALUATION OF PUBLIC SERVICE CORPORATIONS. Robert H. Whitten, Ph. D. New York: The Banks Law Publishing Company. 1912.

THE RECORD OF A CITY. By Rev. George F. Kenngott. New York: The Macmillan Company.

PROGRAM OF THE EIGHTEENTH ANNUAL MEETING

OF THE

NATIONAL MUNICIPAL LEAGUE

AND

TWENTIETH NATIONAL CONFERENCE FOR GOOD CITY GOVERNMENT

TO BE HELD IN LOS ANGELES, CALIFORNIA

July 8–12, 1912

MONDAY EVENING, JULY 8

Presiding officer, Hon. Hiram Johnson, Governor of California

Address of Welcome, Hon. George Alexander, mayor of Los Angeles.

Response by Dr. Albert Bushnell Hart, Harvard University, former vice-president, National Municipal League.

Annual address of the president, Expert City Management, Hon. William Dudley Foulke.

ANNUAL MEETING

OF THE

NATIONAL MUNICIPAL LEAGUE

TUESDAY MORNING, JULY 9

President Foulke in the chair

Report of executive committee, M. N. Baker, Montclair, N. J.

Report of treasurer, George Burnham, Jr., Philadelphia.

Report of the committee on nominations, Hon. Charles J. Bonaparte, Baltimore, Md., chairman.

Election of officers and council.

Simplicity, Publicity and Efficiency in Municipal Affairs, Clinton Rogers Woodruff, Philadelphia, secretary.

Commission Government for Large Cities, Prof. William Bennett Munro, Cambridge, Mass., assistant professor of government, Harvard University.

Home Rule in California, Prof. Thomas H. Reed, Berkeley, Cal., assistant professor of government, University of California.

County Home Rule Government, Hon. Leslie R. Hewitt, state senator from Los Angeles; Richard S. Childs, New York, secretary of the Short Ballot Organization; Percy V. Long, Esq., city attorney of San Francisco.

TUESDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 9

Round table luncheon at the Hotel Alexandria. At this luncheon the papers of the morning will be open for discussion. The presiding officer will be Prof. Augustus Raymond Hatton of the Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio.

TUESDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 9

President Foulke in the chair

Honesty Plus Efficiency, Meyer Lissner, Esq., Los Angeles.

The Need for an Adequate Civil Service Law, Elliot H. Goodwin, New York, secretary of the National Civil Service Reform League.

Report of the Committee on the Selection and Retention of Higher Municipal Officials. This report is the result of a two years' effort of a joint committee of the National Municipal League and the National Civil Service Reform League, composed of Clinton Rogers Woodruff, Philadelphia, chairman; Horace E. Deming, New York; Richard Henry Dana, Cambridge, Mass.; Stiles P. Jones, Minneapolis, Minn.; William Dudley Foulke, Richmond, Ind.; Elliot H. Goodwin, New York; Robert Catherwood, Chicago.

PARALLEL SESSION

Tuesday Afternoon, July 9

Mrs. Andrew C. Lobinger, formerly president Woman's Club of Los Angeles, presiding

Municipal Health Problem, M. N. Baker, Montclair, N. J.

Municipal Housekeeping, Mrs. Caroline Bartlett Crane, Kalamazoo, Mich.

Civic Education, Arthur W. Dunn, secretary, Public Education Association, New York.

Wednesday Morning, July 10

President Foulke, presiding

Municipal Finances and Taxation. The League was one of the pioneer organizations to take up the question of municipal taxation, accounting and budget making. For the past two years its committee on city finances and budgets has been seeking to correlate the work already done and to map out a plan indicating what more is to be done. The program for this session will be divided into two parts:

One will deal with Municipal Finances, which will be discussed by A. C. Pleydell, of New York, secretary of the New York Tax Reform Association and member of the recently appointed New Jersey tax investigation commission, and by Prof. Carl C. Plehn, of the University of California, the tax expert.[1]

The second will deal with City Finances and Budgets, which will be presented in two parts, one on Accounting as a Basis for Effective Administration, by William B. Hadley, of the controller's office, Philadelphia, and the other on Budget Making: Its Necessity and Significance, by Dr. Jesse D. Burks, director of the Philadelphia bureau of municipal research, and revenue accounting by Dr. L. G. Powers, bureau of the census.

These several papers will be thrown open for general discussion at the round table luncheon to be held immediately following, over which George Burnham, Jr., Philadelphia, chairman of the League's committee on city finances and budgets will preside.

Wednesday Afternoon, July 10

Meyer Lissner, Los Angeles, presiding

State versus Municipal Regulation of Public Utilities, John M. Eshelman, San Francisco, president of the railroad commission of California and Lewis R. Works, former president, board of public utilities.

Street Railway Franchises, Dr. Delos F. Wilcox, franchise expert of the public utilities commission, New York City; J. W. S. Peters, Esq., Kansas City, president Kansas City City Club.

Wednesday Afternoon, July 10

Frank J. Symmes, San Francisco, presiding

Excess Condemnation, Robert S. Binkerd, New York, secretary of the New York City Club. The League's committee on excess condemnation, of which Mr. Binkerd is chairman and which is composed of Lawson Purdy, New York, Frederick N. Judson, St. Louis, Prof. Charles J. Bullock, Harvard, Hon. Edward M. Bassett, Nelson P. Lewis, of New York, Herbert S. Swan, of Iowa, will present a formal report of its two years' work.

An Effective Housing Campaign, John Ihlder, New York, field secretary, National Housing Association. Rev. Dana W. Bartlett, the Bethlehem Institution, Los Angeles. The discussion will be opened by Senator Burnett, author of the California housing law and Langley Porter, president of the San Francisco Housing Association.

Commission Government and City Planning, Dr. Ernest S. Bradford, Washington, D. C.

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[1] See page 337.

Dinner, Wednesday Evening, July 10

Thursday Morning, July 11

President Foulke in the chair.

The Work of the League of California Municipalities. H. A. Mason, San Francisco, secretary, League of California Municipalities.

The Actual Operation of the Initiative, Referendum and Recall, Dr. John R. Haynes, Los Angeles, president, Direct Legislation League of California.

The Boss's Day in Court, Prof. Albert Bushnell Hart, Cambridge, Mass.; Dorman B. Eaton, professor of government, Harvard University.

The Elimination of the Party Boss in California Cities, Chester H. Rowell, Fresno, Cal., editor, *Fresno Republican* and one of the leaders in the emancipation of California municipalities.

The Actual Operation of Woman Suffrage in Pacific Coast Cities, Mrs. Charles Farwell Edson, Los Angleles, chairman, Political Equality League of California.

Socialism in California Municipalities. Dr. Ira B. Cross, Leland Stanford University, assistant professor of economics; author *Essentials of Socialism*.

Socialism in the Cities, Max L. Larkin, acting instructor in economics.

Friday, July 12

Dr. John R. Haynes will preside

Proposed Charter for Los Angeles. The proposed charter for Los Angeles drafted by a special commission appointed by the council o the city will be submitted for general consideration, discussion and criticism. Among those who have been invited to participate in the discussion are Hon. William Dudley Foulke, Robert S. Binkerd, Dr. E. S. Bradford, Richard S. Childs, Dr. F. A. Cleveland, Dr. John A. Fairlie, H. S. Gilbertson, Elliot H. Goodwin, Dr. Albert Bushnell Hart, Prof. Augustus Raymond Hatton, John Ihlder, J. W. S. Peters, Prof. Thomas H. Reed, Dr. Delos F. Wilcox, Clinton Rogers Woodruff.

THE CIVIC EXHIBIT

In connection with the National Municipal League meetings a civic exhibit will be held. The general subjects to be treated are comprehensive city planning, traffic and transportation, terminal facilities, harbors, water supplies, including an exhibit by the aqueduct board, street systems, parks and boulevards, civic and social centers, school work, open-air school methods, city sub-divisions, garden sites, housing, municipal art, health and sanitation, child welfare, civil service, municipal charters and commission form of government, short ballot, municipal taxation system, municipal efficiency, excess condemnation, civic education and municipal libraries.

RECENT MUNICIPAL DOCUMENTS

Miss Adelaide R. Hasse

Chief of the Bureau of Documents, New York Public Library

Administration in General

Aachen, Germany. Bericht über die Verwaltung und den Stand der Gemeinde-Angelegenheiten im Rechnungsjahr 1911. 39 p. 4°.

Battersea, Metropolitan borough. Annual report of the council for the year ended 31st March, 1911. xvi, 307 p. 8°.

Berlin, Germany. Gemeinde-Blatt der Haupt- u. Residenzstadt. Jahrg. 53. 1912. no. 1-15. January 7-April 14. 186 p. f°.

Bordeaux, France. Procès verbaux des séances du conseil municipal. 1912. no. 1-2. February, 9-23. p. 1-42.

Boston, Mass. City Record (weekly). v. 3, no. 50-52. December, 16-30, 1911. p. 943-990. v. 4, no. 1-17. January 6-April 27, 1912. p. 1-356. 4°.

All bids and contracts awarded, as well as departmental notices, are published in the City Record. An abstract of the paper read by Nelson P. Lewis, chief engineer of the New York City board of estimate and apportionment, before the Municipal Engineers of New York City on September 27, 1911, on "City Planning," is printed in v. 3, no. 51. A description of the opening of the world's first higher municipal college in Düsseldorf, Germany, in October, 1911, is printed in v. 4, no. 1. V. 4, no. 6 contains a comparative table showing department expenditures to December 1 of each year for five periods to 1912. It also contains the text of the address of Mayor Fitzgerald, made on February 5, 1912. An account of the workers' school of municipal government of Chicago, Ill., is given in v. 4, no. 9. Boston has just awarded a contract for the disposal of city waste. V. 3, no. 50, contains the council proceedings relative to the contract, v. 3, no. 52 contains the report of the finance commission on the same subject; v. 4, no. 3, contains the text of a report of a committee of the Chamber of Commerce on the refuse contract and v. 4, no. 7 contains the text of the contract and of the specifications for the disposal of garbage and refuse for ten years. No. 12 contains a reply of the bath trustees to a criticism of the department by the finance commission. No. 15 contains a letter from Mayor Fitzgerald relative to the consolidation of certain city departments; and on p. 291-292 of the same number is a chronological sketch of the Boston water department. In 1911 (ch. 413, Acts of 1911) Massachusetts passed a laborers' retirement act applicable to Boston. No. 17, 1912, of the City Record contains a schedule of pensions awarded under the act.

Organization of the city government of Boston for the year 1912. 39 p. 12°.

In addition to lists of officers and rules of the city council there are, on p. 28-39, "Boston Statistics," prepared by the statistics department.

Brünn, Austria. Mitteilungen des Stadtrates der Landeshauptstadt Brünn (monthly). 1912, January-February.

Vital statistics, municipal kitchen, employment bureau, bureau of child hygiene.

Brussels, Belgium. Rapport presenté au conseil communal en séance du 2 octobre 1911 par le collège des bourgmestres et échevins. 885 p., foldg. tables, charts. 8°.

Chapter 1 includes a report on the condition of the ancient as well as the current municipal archives. In 1910 a fund was created providing for cinematographic archives, i.e., the cinematographic preservation of any event of public interest such as the visit of foreign sovereigns and dignitaries, the opening of parliament, etc. In its archives branch the city also maintains a collection of photographs of local interest, and a collection of contemporary archives of economic interest on the lines of the Rheinisch-Westfälisches Wirthschaftsarchiv at Cologne. It is proposed to collect printed as well as manuscript material from commercial houses, theatres, hotels, banks etc. for permanent deposit. Chapter 2 relates to population and to vital statistics. There are detailed age, nationality and profession tables, tables showing the character of buildings by streets and tables showing housing conditions. Chapter 3 relates to the civil guards, chapter 4 to the electorate, chapter 5 to finances, chapter 6 to public safety (fire and police), chapter 7 to medical statistics, public health and hygiene, including food and drug inspection and building inspection. Brussels regulates the social evil by medical inspection. There is a classified table of such inspections each year from 1881 to 1910. There is a chart showing annual average deaths from specified causes, 1867-1910, maps of the city showing density of population and mortality rate from principal zymotic diseases, infantile mortality, and deaths from tuberculosis, also a chart showing, by months, the relation of deaths from certain diseases to the weather.

Chapter 8 relates to public works (public buildings, traction systems, public grounds, parks, etc.). Chapter 9 relates to water supply and comprises comparative tables of consumption, receipts and expenditures, 1906–1910. Chapter 10 relates to gas works. There is a table showing quantity of gas sold each year, since its installation in 1875 to 1910. Chapter 11 relates to street cleaning, including house refuse disposal. A report of Dr. Van Campenhout, connected with the plant, on the operations of the Brussels incineration plant is printed on p. 581, et seq. There is a table showing the annual operations of the street cleaning service from 1881 to 1910. Chapter 13 relates to public instruction and the fine arts and includes reports on all public and private educational institutions in Brussels, and on the dramatic and musical presentations of the year. It includes a report on the work of the committee on Old-Brussels for the preservation of buildings and architectural fragments; also a report on local pageants and festivals. Chapter 14 relates to institutions of mutual aid, chapter 15 to churches, chapter 16 to public charities and includes a report of the committee on intercommunal funds against involuntary idleness.

Caen, France Bulletin municipal de la ville de Caen. Année 20, no. 1. 1912, January.

Croydon, England. Council minutes and incidental papers, from 9th November, 1910, to 3d October, 1911. With index. v. 29 in 2 pts.

Contains reports no. 1–75, including all the customary reports on municipal activities. The expiration of the present water committee is made the occasion for reviewing the proceedings of the committee for the past five years (doc. 75). The annual report of the medical officer contains a syllabus of lectures to parents on care of children, etc. The report of the school canteen committee (doc. 42) describes in detail the provision for underfed school children.

Denver, Col. Denver Municipal Facts (weekly). v. 4, no. 13–17. 1912, March 30–April 27.

No. 14 gives an account of the largest sale of improvement bonds in the history of Denver, viz., $2,700,000 civic center bonds, on April 2, 1912.

Dijon, France. Bulletin municipal officiel de la ville. Année 17, série 2. 1912, no. 1–2. January–February.

At the end of each number is printed the Bulletin mensuel de statistique of the Bureau d'Hygiène for the preceding month.

Durban, Natal. Mayor's minute with departmental reports, appendices, and balance sheets, for the municipal year ended 31st July, 1911. 1912. 317 p.

Durban's municipal undertakings are water, tramways, electric light, market, the native market and telephones. The city also maintains public baths, a museum, zoölogical gardens, a musical director, a municipal tuberculosis bureau.

Havre, France. Budget supplémentaire de l'exercice 1911. Exposé. 17 p. 8°.

Address of the mayor to the council in support of the supplementary budget, reviewing its several provisions.

Houston, Texas. Progressive Houston. v. 3, no. 9–11. January–March, 1912.

No. 9 gives an account of the recent land show and of the extensive viaduct construction now proceeding. No. 11 contains the annual reports of the city departments.

Johannesburg, Transvaal. Minutes of the municipal council. 1912.

Minutes of the special meeting of January 30, contain urgency reports of the public health committee, relating chiefly to small-pox and the plague.

Launceston, Tasmania. Mayor's valedictory address and departmental reports. 1911. 44 p. 8°.

Magdeburg, Germany. Bericht über die Verwaltung und den Stand der Gemeinde-Angelegenheiten der Stadt Magdeburg für die Zeit vom 1. April, 1910, bis 31. März 1911. xii, 545 p. f°.

Vital statistics, labor conditions, milk supply, invalid insurance, police, building construction, parks, fires, street cleaning, slaughter-houses, municipal water-works, gas works, electricity plant, public health, baths, schools, museums, city orchestra and city theater, poor, sick and accident insurance, industrial and commercial courts, legal aid bureau, labor bureau, municipal savings bank.

Minneapolis, Minn. Annual reports of the various city officers for the year 1910. v.p. 8°.

Mons, Belgium. Rapport sur l'administration et la situation des affaires de la ville pendant l'année 1910. 238, viii p. 8°.

Munich, Germany. Münchener Gemeinde Zeitung (semi-weekly). Jahrg.

40, no. 94–104, November 29–December 30, 1911. Jahrg. 41, no. 1–22, January 3–March 18, 1912.

——Sitzungsberichte des Magistrats, Gemeinde-Kollegiums, etc, Jahrg. 40, no. 95–104, November 29–December 30, 1911. p. 1615–1771. Jahrg. 41, no. 1–30, January 3–April 17, 1912. p. 1–334. 4°.

Pages 211–218 (February 3, 1912) comprise a discussion of the revision of the municipal contract system. Reference is made to the exemplary system in operation in Saxony and its beneficent effect on labor. Pages 247–253, 388–396, 400–413 contain discussions relative to the feeding of poor school children, the maintenance of soup kitchens, etc. Reference is made to the installation of similar arrangements by an American, Count Rumford, in Bavaria several hundred years ago. Pages 358–366, 566–567 relate to compulsory vocational schools. Pages 387, 525–528 relate to the proposed publication of a municipal year-book. Pages 484–501, 543–558, relate to the establishment of a fund for insurance against unemployment. Pages 595–596, 643–659 relate to the organization of a consumers' league confined to public employes. Pages 298–300 contain a report of the proceedings at the opening of the new market.

Oswego, N.Y. Journal of the common council from January 1, 1910, to January 1, 1911. 307 p. 8°.

Paris, France. Bulletin municipal officiel de la ville de Paris (daily).* Année 31. no. 33–100, February 2–April, 1912. p. 729–1972.

A report (27, p. , 4°.) of the meeting on December 23, 1911, of the commission on Old Paris accompanies the Bulletin of February 3, as a supplement. Pages 1224–1226 contain a proposition to the municipal council for a special municipal tax on spirits and for the establishment of dispensaries for combating tuberculosis. These two measures, it is expected, will counteract the decline in the birthrate, which, at the present rate, it is estimated will fall to 189,000 for the whole of France in 1930. Pages 1281–1305 comprise the census of Paris, taken March 5, 1911. Pages 1321–1334, 1402–1414, 1465–1472, contain discussions in the municipal council on improper police protection in Paris and in the suburbs. Pages 1372–1381 contain a discussion of the hospital and asylum system of Paris, prefaced by a brief historical résumé of its development since the Revolution. Pages 1506–1510 relate to a modification of the taximeter tariff. Pages 1596 et seq. contain a discussion relative to a proposed municipal bureau of labor to regulate social hygiene, free employment, unemployment and housing conditions. Pages 1602–1607, and 1694–1695 contain the discussion of the report on civil retirements. M. Paul Virot, the father of the report, in opening the discussion, reviews the history of civil retirements in France since the passage of the first law for their installation in 1853. Pages 1673–1674 relate to proposed housing schemes.

Pittsburgh, Penna. Annual reports of the executive departments of the city for the year ending January 31, 1911. 2 v. 8°.

Quedlinburg, Germany. Bericht über die Verwaltung und den Stand der Gemeinde-Angelegenheiten der Stadt Quedlinburg für das Rechnungsjahr 1 April, 1910–1911. 140 p. 4°.

Municipal savings bank, school savings banks, slaughter houses, 48th annual report of the municipal gas works (1910–11), 26th annual report of the municipal water works (1910–11), 8th annual report of the municipal electricity plant (1910–11), of the municipal bath, police, building contruction, food inspection, fires, schools, poor, employment bureau.

Revere, Mass. Annual reports of the several boards of town officers, heads of departments, etc., for the municipal year ending March 4, 1912. 520 p.

The building laws of the town are under revision. The text of the proposed laws is printed on p. 103–168.

Richmond, Ind. Reports of the city controller and other officers for the year ending December 31, 1911. 46 p. 8°.

On p. 13 there are tables showing respectively the receipts, construction expenses and operating expenses for each month of each year, 1907–1911, of the municipal electric light plant.

Rixdorf, Germany. Rixdorf in alter und neuer Zeit. 69 p., I 1., 3 maps, illus. 8°.

St. Pancras, England. Annual report of the borough council for the financial year ended 31st March, 1911. 429 p.

Metropolitan borough. The greater part of the volume is taken up by the 55th annual report of the medical officer, Dr. John F. J. Sykes. Dr. Sykes has a sincere appreciation of the value of the child as a municipal asset and describes with vigor the promotion of "mothercraft" in St. Pancras, including the care and education of the child. He urges the converging into one channel, viz., schools of mothercraft, of all the moneys needed for maintenance of milk depots, day nurseries, nursery schools, etc.

San Francisco, Cal. Municipal Record. v. 4, 1911, no. 51–52. p. 393–408. v. 5, 1912, no. 1–17. p. 1–140.

Summary of proceedings of boards and commissions (supervisors, fire and police commissioners, boards of education and of health), weekly progress report of bureau of architecture, street cleaning department, bureau of engineering. The inaugural message of Mayor Rolph, January 8, 1912, dealing with matters of great civic importance, is printed in full in *v.* 5, no. 2. V. 5, no. 3, contains the supervisors' declaration in favor of a new city hall and a civic center; no. 5 contains a report of the investigation into the alleged waste of city funds; no. 6 contains a report on the purchase of the Spring Valley Water Company's properties by the city. No. 14 gives an account of the preliminary steps taken by the Supervisors for the erection of a city hall and the creation of a civic center authorized by the voters on March 28, 1912, when they sanctioned the issue of $8,800,000 bonds for this purpose. No. 16 has a note on the municipal reference library provided for by the Supervisors.

SHANGHAI, China. The Municipal Gazette. v. 5, 1912. January–March. no. 218–231. p. 1-94.

No. 231 (March 22, 1912) contains the report of the annual meeting of rate payers.

TOURS, France. Bulletin municipal de la ville. 1911, no. 8. September 29. p. 753–833.

Abattoirs

See also below Statistics (Berlin, Duisburg, Halle a. S., Johannesburg, Königsberg i. Pr., Milan and Moscow, Russia); also above Administration in General (Magdeburg). See also under Charters and Ordinances.

DORTMUND, Germany. Verwaltungsbericht des Vieh und Schlacthofes für das Betriebsjahr 1910–11, unter Berücksichtigung der seit der Eröffnung verflossenen 25 Jahre. 33p., 2 foldg. tables.

Archives

See above Administration in General (Brussels).

Budgets

CHEMNITZ, Germany. Haushaltsplan der Stadt Chemnitz auf das Jahr 1912. 2 p. l., 85 folios. 4°.

HAVRE, France. Budget supplémentaire de l'exercice 1911. 51 p. 4°.

——Budget de l'exercice 1912. 172 p. f°.

KÖNIGSHÜTTE O. S., Germany. Haushaltsplan für das Jahr 1912. 169 p. 4°.

NÜRNBERG, Germany. Voranschlag für den Gemeindehaushalt der Stadt Nürnberg für das Jahr 1911. 329, 102, 134 p. 4°.

PAWTUCKET, R. I. Estimated receipts and expenditures for the fiscal year ending December 31, 1912. 24 p. 8°.

RIXDORF, Germany. Haushaltspläne der Stadt Rixdorf 1911. 336, 51–74 p. f°.

SAARBRÜCKEN, Germany. Haushaltspläne für das Rechnungsjahr 1912. 225 p.

Building Construction

See also above "Administration in General" (Berlin, Brussels, Magdeburg, Quedlinburg, Revere, San Francisco); below under Statistics (Duisburg, Halle a. S., Johannesburg, Milan, Munich); also under Police (London, England).

CLEVELAND, Ohio. The revised building code. April 1,1911. 2 p.l., 193 p.

Census

See above "Administration in General" (Paris)

Charters and Ordinances

Special codes are entered under specific subjects; see, for instance, above, "Building Construction."

The Public Health Reports, issued weekly by the U. S. Public Health and Marine Hospital Service, contain, in each number, ordinances and departmental regulations pertaining to hygiene. The following is analysis of the ordinances which have appeared in the Public Health Reports from February 26 to April 19, 1912.

Abattoirs:
  Saginaw, Mich. July 17, 1911. v. 27, p. 162.
  San Diego, Cal. August 18, 1911. ib., p. 165.
Barber Shop Inspection:
  Brookline, Mass. November 6, 1911. v. 27, p. 519.
Birth, Marriages and Death Certificates:
  Orange, N. J. October 2, 1911. v. 27, p. 555.
Cesspools:
  Brookline, Mass. November 6, 1911. v. 27, p. 550.
  Connellsville, Pa. July 18, 1911. ib., p. 492.
Food and Drug Regulation:
  Brookline, Mass. November 6, 1911. v. 27, p. 462.
  Freeport, Ill. February 5, 1912. ib., p. 494.
  Greensboro, N. C. July 11, 1911. ib., p. 462.
  Holland, Mich. October 2, 1911. ib., p. 464.
  Louisville, Ky. August 8, 1911. ib., p. 465.
  Orange, N. J. October 2, 1911. ib., p. 465.
  Wilmington, N. C. July 1, 1911. ib., p. 466.
  Torrington, Conn. July 1, 1911. ib., p. 493.
Ice Supply:
  East Orange, N. J. November 16, 1911. v. 27, p. 492.

- Milk Supply:
  - Brookline, Mass. November 6, 1911. v. 27, p. 228.
  - Columbus, Ohio. November 14, 1911. ib., p. 613.
  - Dallas, Texas. October 16, 1911. ib., p. 645.
  - Jackson, Tenn. December 14, 1911. ib., p. 613.
  - Los Angeles, Cal. November 28, 1911. ib., p. 616.
  - Mansfield, Ohio. July 7, 1911. ib., p. 646.
  - New York City. January 4, 1912. ib., p. 434.
  - Newport, Ky. July 13, 1911. ib., p. 647.
  - Orange, N. J. October 2, 1911. ib., p. 618.
  - Piqua, Ohio. July 31, 1911. ib., p. 228.
  - Tacoma, Wash. January 3, 1912. ib., p. 267.
- Mosquito Extermination:
  - Orange, N. J. October 2, 1911. v. 27, p. 494.
- Nuisances:
  - Brookline, Mass. November 6, 1911. v. 27, p. 491.
  - Chattanooga, Tenn. August 28, 1911. ib., p. 198.
  - Cumberland, Md. August 7, 1911. ib., p. 551.
  - Detroit, Mich. October 10, 1911. ib., p. 492.
  - Piqua, Ohio. July 3, 1911. ib., p. 226.
  - Plainfield, N. J. July 7, 1911. ib., p. 231.
  - Torrington, Conn. July 1, 1911. ib., p. 523.
- Public Health and Vital Statistics:
  - Binghamton, N. Y. July 28, 1911. v. 27, p. 196.
- Refuse Disposal:
  - Blomington, Ill. August 5, 1911. v. 27, p. 196.
  - Brookline, Mass. November 6, 1911. ib., p. 266.
  - Orange, N. J. December 1, 1911. ib., p. 522.
  - St. Paul, Minn. July 14, 1911. ib., p. 200.
- Second Hand Clothing-Sale:
  - Freeport, Ill. February 5, 1912. v. 27, p. 521.
- Spitting:
  - Cincinnati, Ohio. September 6, 1911. ib., p. 491.
- Stables:
  - East Orange, N. J. November 16, 1911. v. 27, p. 520.
  - Holland, Mich. October 2, 1911. ib., p. 494.
  - Wilmington, N. C. July 25, 1911; December 7, 1911. ib., p. 495, 555.
- Towels—Common Use:
  - Detroit, Mich. January 23, 1912. v. 27, p. 520.
- Water Supply:
  - Wilmington, N. C. January 23, 1912. v. 27, p. 523.

Bremen, Germany. Gesetzblatt der freien Hansestadt Bremen, 1911. vii, 268 p. 8°.

Ogden, Utah. Revised ordinances including all ordinances of a general nature in force March 1, 1910, and all franchises and special grants. Revised, compiled and arranged by James H. Devine. liv, 664 p. 8°.

Child Welfare

See above "Administration in General" (Brünn, Croydon, Münich, St. Pancras); also below "Public Health and Vital Statistics" (Boston, Brookline, Milwaukee); also "Statistics" (Halle a. S.)

City Planning

See also the April, 1912, issue of Landscape Architecture for "A Brief Survey of Recent City-Planning Reports in the U. S."

Special Libraries, v. 3, no. 5 (May 1912), p. 61—123, contains a Check list of references on city planning. Single copies may be purchased for 25 cents by addressing Special Libraries Association, 93 Broad St., Boston, Mass.

Lewis, Nelson P. City planning; paper read before the municipal engineers of New York City, September 27, 1911. (Boston City Record. v. 3, no. 51. 1911.)

Denver, Col. See above "Administration in General."

Rochester, N. Y. A city plan for Rochester. A report prepared for the Rochester Civic Improvement Committee by Arnold W. Brunner, Frederick Law Olmsted and Bion J. Arnold. 1911. 39 p., 2 maps. illus. 4°.

St. Louis, Mo. A list of books and articles on city planning and civic centers. Compiled and annotated by Jesse Cunningham, Librarian of the municipal reference branch of the St. Louis Public Library. 1912. 12p. 8°.

San Francisco, Cal. See above "Administration in General."

Employment Bureaus

See above "Administration in General" (Quedlinburg), and below "Statistics" (Duisburg).

Finance

Cambridge, Mass. Annual report of the city auditor for the year ending March 31, 1911. 184 p. 8°

Charles H. Thurston, city auditor.

Edinburgh, Scotland. Municipal and other public accounts published in the year 1911. v. p.

Robt. Paton, city chamberlain. The accounts proper are preceded by an introductory memorandum describing the nature of the several accounts. The statements respecting assessable rentals and local rates (p. 331–346) are cumulative from 1880 to 1912. On p. 347–353 are tabular statements showing police capital expenditure for 32 years from 1879 to 1911. On p. 468–469 is a table showing receipts and expenditures of the Edinburgh and Leith corporations' gas commissioners from date of constitution, viz., July 31, 1888, to May, 1911. On p. 470–471 is a table showing amount of gas made, sold, etc., for the 10 years ended May 15, 1911.

HOUSTON, Texas. Annual report of D. C. Smith, Jr., city comptroller, for the year ending February 28, 1911. (In: Reports of city officials 1911. p. 61–93.)

——Annual report of T. C. Dunn, city treasurer, for the year ending February 28, 1911. (In: Reports of city officials, 1911. p. 95–101.)

——Annual report of J. L. Gaston, chairman finance and revenue committee, for the year ending February 28, 1911. (In: Reports of city officials, 1911. p. 13–16.)

LOS ANGELES, Cal. Report of the auditor of the financial affairs of the corporation in its capacity as a city for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1911. 138 p. 8°.

John S. Myers, city auditor. Pages 108–188 are given over to a tabulation of data relating to bonds, water, valuations, taxes, etc. On p. 115 is a statement of valuations and rates for each fiscal year from 1860–1861 to 1911–1912. Following this there are tables showing annual clearances at the clearing from its organization in 1887 to 1911; expenditures of the city each year 1899 to 1911, statement of various bond issues, comparative tables of outlays, salaries and expenses, 1908–1911.

MILAN, Italy. Conto consuntivo dell' anno 1910. Milano, 1911. v.p. 4°.

Contains a comparative table of classified receipts and expenditures for each year from 1897 to 1910.

OGDEN, Utah. Monthly financial statement. 1912. February–March.

Includes summary of proceedings of the board of commissioners.

PARMA, Italy. Bilancio preventivo per l'esercizio 1911. Parma: P. Grazioli, 1910. v.p. f°.

——Bilancio preventivo per l'esercizio 1911. Relazione della giunta municipale. Parma, 1911. 46, xxxiii p. f°.

PLAUEN i. V., Germany. Rechnungsübersichten der Stadtgemeinde Plauen i. V. auf das Jahr 1910. 33 leaves. 4°

PROVIDENCE, R. I. Annual report (65th) of the city auditor showing the receipts and expenditures for the year ending September 30, 1911. 188 p. 8°.

ST. PAUL, Minn. City comptroller's and departmental estimates for the year 1912. 67 p. obl. 8°.

W. H. Farnham, comptroller.

Fires

See also above "Administration in General" (Berlin, Brussels, Buffalo, Magdeburg, Quedlinburg, San Francisco); also below "Statistics" (Florence, Johannesburg, Milan, Moscow).

EDINBURGH, Scotland. Report of the city fire brigade for the year ending 31st December, 1911. 11 p., 1 map. 4°.

On p. 10 is a table showing the number of calls received by the department since its organization in 1824. A detailed plan of Edinburgh, Leith and Portobello with suburbs, showing fire stations and fires, accompanies the report.

MANISTEE, Mich. Annual report of the board of police and fire commissioners for the year ending March 20, 1911. 43 p. 8°.

MELBOURNE, Vict. Report (20th) of the metropolitan fire brigades board for the year 1910. 52 p. f°.

On p. 5 there is a table showing the value of rateable property, the amount of contributions by the municipalities within the metropolitan fire district and the rate per £, each year from 1891 to 1910.

Food and Drug Regulation

See below "Public Health and Vital Statistics" (Cincinnati, Hartford, Salt Lake City, San Francisco, Troy).

See also "Milk Supply," and also above under "Charters and Ordinances."

Historic Monuments Preservation

See also above "Administration in General" (Brussels) and below "Statistics" (Berlin).

PARIS, France. Commission du Vieux Paris. Compte rendu du séance du samedi 23 Dicembre, 1911. 27 p. 4°.

A commission for the preservation of monuments and landmarks.

Industrial and Commercial Courts

See above "Administration in General" (Magdeburg) and below "Statistics" (Halle a. S., Königsberg i. Pr.)

Insurance

(Old-age, Invalid, Unemployment.)

See above "Administration in General" (Magdeburg, Munich); also below "Statistics" (Berlin, Duisburg, Hall a. S.)

Municipal Government

Chicago, Ill. Account of the workers' school of municipal government. (Boston City Record, 1912. v. 4, no. 9.)

Düsseldorf, Germany. Account of opening of college for training in municipal governments. (Same v. 4, no. 1.)

Municipal Reference Libraries

Chicago, Ill. Account of opening of the Civics Room in the Chicago Public Library on May 1, 1912. (Chicago Public Library. Book Bulletin. v. 2, no. 5.)

St. Louis, Mo. The Municipal Reference Branch of the St. Louis Public Library, extension and scope. (Library Journal. May, 1912, p. 286.)

San Francisco, Cal. See above under "Administration in General."

Milk Supply

See also above "Administration in General" (Magdeburg); also below "Public Health and Vital Statistics" (Hartford, New York City, San Francisco); also below "Statistics" (Halle a. S.)

See also under "Charters and Ordinances."

St. Louis, Mo. Proposed ordinances for the regulation of the milk supply of St. Louis. Submitted by a committee of the Civic League. Jan., 1912. 32 p. 8°.

Markets

See also above "Administration in General" (Brussels, Durban, Quedlinburg); also below "Statistics" (Duisburg, Halle a. S., Johannesburg, Königsberg i. Pr., Milan, Moscow, Munich).

Berlin, Germany. Preis-Zusammenstellungen des statistischen Amts. (monthly) 1911, no. 11–12. November-December. 1 sheet. 4°.

Weekly price lists of meats as obtaining at the municipal comestibles at the municipal markets.

Labor

See also above "Administration in General" (Brünn, Magdeburg, Paris); also below "Statistics" (Berlin, Halle a. S., Königsberg i. Pr., Moscow, Munich).

Brussels, Belgium. Report on intercommunal funds against involuntary idleness. See above "Administration in General."

Legal Aid Bureaus

See above "Administration in General" (Magdeburg); also below "Statistics" (Halle a. S.).

Light and Power Plants

See above "Administration in General" (Brussels, Durban, Magdeburg, Quedlinburg, Richmond, Ind.) also "Finance" (Edinburgh); also below "Statistics" (Berlin, Duisburg, Halle a. S., Johannesburg).

Municipal Kitchens

See above "Administration in General" (Munich).

Municipal Pageants

See above "Administration in General" (Brussels).

Municipal Savings Banks

See also above "Administration in General" (Magdeburg, Quedlinburg); also below "Statistics" (Berlin, Duisburg, Halle a. S., Königsberg i. Pr., Munich).

Freiburg, i. Br., Germany. Städtische Sparkasse Freiburg i. Br. Rechenschafts-Bericht für das Jahr 1910. 11 (1) p. 4°.

On the last page is a table showing annual operations of the savings bank from 1890 to 1910.

Municipal Theatres

See also above Administration in General" (Magdeburg).

Dortmund, Germany. Bericht des Stadttheaters in Dortmund für das Jahr 1910–11 (7 spieljahr). 4 pp. 4°.

Parks

See also above "Administration in General" (Brussels, Durban, Magdeburg).

SEATTLE, Washington. Eighth annual report of the board of park commissioners for the calendar year 1911 with statistics and data 1890 to 1911. 112 p., foldg. tables, 1 map, plates. 8°.

Roland W. Cotteril, secretary park board. Seattle has a total park area of 1024 acres, and a total playground area of 87 acres, besides 15 miles of boulevards. On p. 104–105 there are tables showing annual receipts and expenditures, 1891–1911. On p. 106 there is a table showing land purchases and payments for parks, playgrounds, boulevards, respectively from 1890–1911.

CHATTANOOGA, Tenn. General features of a park system for Chattanooga, Tenn. Report to the board of park commissioners. By John Nolen. 27 p., 6 pls., 1 map. 8°.

ROCHESTER, N. Y. Park commission the 1911 report. 84 p., 22 pls. 8°.

Begins with a review of the origin of the Rochester park system. Contains text of the penal ordinances relating to the use of parks and parkways.

Playgrounds

BUFFALO, New York. First annual report of the playground commission of the city of Buffalo for the year ending December 31, 1910. 63 p. illus. 8°.

Plumbing Inspection

See below "Public Health and Vital Statistics" (Hartford, San Francisco, Troy.)

Police

See above "Administration in General" (Brussels, Buffalo, Magdeburg, Paris, Quedlinburg, San Francisco); also above "Finance" (Edinburgh); also below "Statistics" (Florence, Munich).

LONDON, England Report of the commissioner of police of the metropolis for the year 1910. 75 p. f°.

On p. 21 is a table showing the number of new houses built, new streets and squares formed with their length in miles and yards each year from 1880 to 1910. There are also tables relative to licensed cabs and public motors and classified tables of vagrants, prostitutes, drunkards, etc., apprehended each year from 1891 to 1910.

MANISTEE, Mich. See above under "Fires."

Poor

See below "Statistics" (Berlin, Halle a. S.).

Public Baths

See also above "Administration in General" (Boston, Durban, Magdeburg, Quedlinburg); also below "Statistics" (Berlin, Florence, Munich).

DORTMUND, Germany. Betriebsbericht der Verwaltung der städtischen Badeanstalten für das Rechnungsjahr 1910 (ende 31 März 1911.) 15 p. 4°.

Public Buildings

See below "Public Works" (Buffalo).

Public Health and Vital Statistics

See also above "Administration in General" (Brussels, Dijon, Magdeburg); also below "Statistics" (Berlin, Duisburg, Florence, Johannesburg, Königsberg i. Pr., Milan, Moscow, Munich).

See also above "Charters and Ordinances."

ABERDEEN, Scotland. Report of the medical officer of health for 1910. 113 p. 8°.

Matthew Hay, medical officer, On p. 8 is a table showing marriage, birth and death rates per 1000 in Aberdeen from 1856 to 1910. The decline in the birth-rate of Aberdeen from 1871–75 to 1909–10 is noted as being 22 per cent. The relation of the decline of the birth-rate to the marriage-rate is discussed and reference is made to the increase of illegitimate births and decrease of the marriage-rate in years of industrial depression. The excess of male births and the subject of causes of such changes in the human community is briefly alluded to. By the operation of the notification of births act it was possible in 1910, for the first time in Aberdeen, to obtain information regarding the number of stillbirths. A special inquiry was made, the result of which is published as an appendix to the report. On p. 13 is a table showing the fertility of marriages in Aberdeen in five-year periods from 1866 to 1910. On p. 59, et seq, is printed the text of a circular issued by the sanitary inspector regarding the destruction of rats. Considerable space is given to the care of the tuberculous. Facing p. 60 is a chart showing tuberculosis mortality in Aberdeen from 1856 to 1910 in quinquennial periods for all ages and both sexes. An isolation pavilion for tuberculosis patients was opened in 1911 and a system of voluntary notification of all forms of tuberculosis was put in operation in the same year. The report to the town council which was responsible for each of these innovations is printed in full, p. 64, et seq.

The medical officer of health is also the administering authority for the inspection of workshops, factories, bakeshops and dairies. Plans for alterations on the construction of new buildings for any of the above-mentioned purposes must be approved by the medical officer of health. The regulation of offensive trades and of slaughter-houses, of the housing of the working classes and of the corporation lodging house, is also within the jurisdiction of the health officer.

An extended note is made of the unsuccessfull fight of the town council before a committee of the House of Lords, in 1911, to secure powers to take from the River Avon an entirely new water supply for the city. Extensive works for the drainage improvement of the city are still under way. The installation of a refuse incinerator is urged.

AUBURN, N. Y. Report of the health department (monthly). 1912, January–March.

Chiefly vital statistics and sanitation.

BERLIN, Germany. Wochenberichte des statistischen Amts. Jahrg. 41. 1912 no. 1–13. Week beginning December 30, 1911, to March 14, 1912.

Vital statistics only.

BESANÇON, France. Statistique démographique et médicale. Année 22, no. 1–6. 1912, January–March.

BOSTON, Mass. Monthly bulletin of the health department. v. 1, no. 1–2. 1912. January–February. p. 1–53.

Vital statistics and child hygiene. No. 2 gives an account of the bureau of child hygiene created in March, 1910.

CINCINNATI, O. Weekly report of the board of health. v. 3, no. 1–17. 1912, January 6–March 23.

Vital statistics, sanitary, food, milk and school inspections.

HARTFORD, Conn. Vital statistics. Issued monthly by the health department. 1912, January–March.

——27th annual report of the board of health for the year ending December 31, 1911. 60 p. 8°.

Includes reports of the bacteriologist, the milk inspector, the food inspector, the sanitary inspector and the plumbing inspector.

MILWAUKEE, Wisc. The Healthologist. Pubished monthly by the health department. v. 2, no. 1–3. 1912, January–March.

Vital statistics, sanitation and child hygiene.

NEW ORLEANS, La. Statement of mortality for the month of January–March, 1912.

NEW YORK CITY. Communicable news. Issued periodically for the information of employees of the division of communicable diseases, department of health, N. Y. C. v. 2, no. 1–9. 1912, January 1–April 1.

No. 7 gives the returns of the second census of tuberculous children in New York City, taken February 23, 1912. An outline of the consolidation of all extra-departmental agencies in the clinic districts of Manhattan, the Bronx and Brooklyn to effect an anti-tuberculosis campaign, is given in no. 9.

——Monthly bulletin of the health department. v. 2, no. 1–3. 1912, January–March.

No. 1 contains the text of the new milk regulations of the health department; no. 3 an account of the history (1796–1912) of the health department.

——Weekly report of the health department. New Series, v. 1, no. 1–15. 1912, January–April 13.

Vital statistics only.

PORTLAND, Me. Report of deaths and contagious diseases (monthly). Issued by the health board. 1912, January–February.

ROME, Italy. Bollettino demografico-meteorico. Anno 41, 1911, weeks ending December 23, 30.

Vital statistics.

ST. PAUL. Minn. Monthly bulletin of the health department. v. 1, no. 1–3. 1912, January–March.

SALT LAKE CITY. Statement of vital statistics (monthly). Published by the health board. 1912, January.

In addition to vital statistics includes report of sanitary inspector, veterinary and dairy and food inspector.

SAN ANTONIO, Texas. Vital statistics (monthly). Published by the health department. 1912, January–February.

Chiefly vital statistics and sanitary inspection.

San Francisco, Cal. Bulletin of the department of health (monthly). 1912, January. 20 p..

In addition to vital statistics, includes reports of sanitary, food, dairy, milk, market, truck garden, industrial and plumbing inspections, also a report on school medical inspection.

Troy, N. Y. Official report of the health officer (monthly). 1912, January–March.

In addition to vital statistics includes meat, food milk and plumbing inspection returns.

United States. Public Health and Marine Hospital Service. Municipal ordinances, rules, and regulations pertaining to public hygiene. Adopted from January 1, 1910, to June 30, 1911, by cities of the United States having a population of over 25,000 in 1910. 1912. 244 p. 8°. (Reprint from Public Health Reports no. 70.)

Public Libraries

Brookline, Mass. Fifty-fifth annual report of the trustees of the public library for the year ending December 31, 1911. 21 p. 8°.

The library is particularly active in its work with children. Comment is made on the responsibility of the library in this regard, it being the only public effort made in Brookline to interest and amuse children on Sundays.

Elizabeth, N. J. Third annual report of the free public library. December, 1911. 16 p. 8°.

Frankfurt a/M. Bericht über die Verwaltung der Stadtbibliothek. 27 Jahrg. 1910–11. 10 p. 4°.

Houston, Texas. Annual report of Houston Lyceum and Carnegie Library for the year ending February 28, 1911. n.p., n.d. (In: Report of city officials 1911. p. 189–192.)

Johannesburg, Transvaal. Record of the public library, 1911. 24 p. 8°.

New Bedford, Mass. Sixtieth annual report of the trustees of the free public library for the year 1911. 52 p., 1 pl. 8°.

Newark, N. J. The free public library of Newark, 1910. Twenty-second annual report. (In: Reports of city officers 1910. p. 267–295). .

John C. Dana, librarian. The Newark Museum Association and the Science Museum have quarters in the library building.

Newton, Mass. Free library. Annual report of the trustees for the year ending December 31, 1911. 20 p. 8°.

Somerville, Mass. Music scores and literature in the public library of Somerville. November, 1911. 73 p. 12°.

Troy, N. Y. Seventy-seventh annual report of the public library, 1911. 16 p. 8°.

Waltham, Mass. Annual report of directors and librarian of the public library for the year ending January 31, 1912. 11 p. 8°.

Public Works

See also above "Administration in General" (Houston, Munich, San Francisco).

Buffalo, N. Y. Eighteenth annual report of the department of public works for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1910. 1224 p., 11.

The report proper is preceded by a map of the population of the city by wards, 1910; chart of the civic government of Buffalo, 1910; and a chart of the organization of the department of public works.

The report proper comprises the 18th annual report of the bureau of engineering (p. 57–693), the 18th annual report of the bureau of water (p. 695–1023). the 18th annual report of the bureau of building (p. 1024–1101), the 18th annual report of the bureau of streets (p. 1103–1224).

On p.101,et seq.,is a statement of the department's method of reporting special franchise taxes which is followed by a tabular classified statement of special franchise assessments each year from 1907–1908 to 1909–1910. A map of the proposed site (290 acres) of the J. N. Adam Memorial Hospital follows p. 134. This hospital is the municipal tuberculosis hospital. The report of the bureau of water includes (p. 700,et seq.) a brief historical description of the Buffalo waterworks. Following p. 1001 is a tabular statement of water mains laid from 1868 to 1910, comprising at present a total of 548 miles. The report of the building bureau includes a tabular statement of the estimated valuation of the real estate of the school department, and of the expenditures for police and fire department buildings each year 1892 to 1909–1910. The report of the bureau of streets comprises reports on the collection of refuse, etc.,and the second annual report of the Refuse Utilization Plant.

SEATTLE, Washington. The city of Seattle. Forms for local improvement procedure under chapter 98 of the laws of Washington for 1911 and ordinance no. 27732. 30 p. f°.

Refuse Disposal

See also above "Administration in General" (Boston, Brussels, Buffalo); also below "Street Cleaning" (Stockholm).

See also under "Charters and Ordinances."

NEW YORK CITY. Rules and regulations for the transportation of refuse material from the city of New York adopted at a meeting of the board of health on April 9, 1912. (In: City Record April 16, 1912. p. 3187–3188.)

OHIO. Report of a study of the collection and disposal of city wastes in Ohio. 1910. Supplement to the 25th annual report of the state board of health. 1911. 290 p., 8 pls., illus. 8°.

Sanitation

See also above "Public Health and Vital Statistics" (Auburn, Hartford, Milwaukee, Salt Lake City, San Antonio, San Francisco); also below "Statistics" (Milan).

CHICAGO, Ill. Bulletin of Chicago School of Sanitary Instruction. Department of health (weekly). v. 6 (new series), no. 1–16. 1912, January 6–April 20. Whole no. 730–745.

SEATTLE, Washington. Bulletin of the Seattle School of Sanitary Science. v. 5. no. 1–3, 1912, January–March.

School Hygiene

See above "Public Health and Vital Statistics" (Cincinnati, San Francisco).

School Meals

See above "Administration in General" (Munich), also below "Statistics" (Milan).

Schools

See also above "Administration in General" (Brussels, San Francisco); also below "Statistics" (Halle a. S.).

KANSAS CITY, Mo. Fortieth annual report of the board of directors of the school district of Kansas City, for the year ending June 30, 1911. 361 p. illus. 8°.

Sewage Disposal

PITTSBURGH, Penna. Report upon sewage disposal to N. S. Sprague, Superintendent of bureau of construction. January 30, 1912. By Allen Hazen. 71 p., 3 plans.

Social Evil

See above "Administration in General" (Brussels), and Police (London).

Statistics

BERLIN, Germany. Monatsberichte des statistischen Amts. Jahrg. 39, no. 10–12. 1911, October–December. p. 151–200. Jahrg. 40, no. 1–2. 1912, January–February. p. 1–32.

Contents uniformly divided into three rubrics, viz., Weather, vital statistics and statistical reports of the various city departments. The arrangement of the latter is fairly uniform and comprises the following: building construction, fires, realty transactions, water supply for household purposes. street cleaning, sewerage, electric supply works, transportation facilities, public baths, abattoir, quarantine, municipal savings bank, invalid and old age insurance, the homeless, poor,orpnans, beggars, hospitals, reformatories, care of the insane, labor conditions. A 2-page supplement of the February number comprises a tabulation of the vital statistics of Berlin for 1911 with a recapitulation for the four preceeding years.

DUISBURG, Germany. Statistische Monatsberichte. Jahrg, 4. no. 11–12. 1911, November–December. p. 233–281

Vital statistics, poor, municipal employment bureau, sick insurance, rail and bridge traffic, abattoirs, prices of comestibles, municipal savings banks, etc., gas, water and electricity, building construction, and, in each number, a comparative résumé at the end.

FLORENCE, Italy. Bollettino statistico mensile. 1912. no. 1–2. January–February.

Vital statistics, police, baths, fires, tramways.

FRANKFURT a. M. Beiträge zur Statistik der Stadt. N. F. Heft 8. Tabellarische Übersichten betreffend den Zivilstand der Stadt in den Jahren 1901–1910. clxi, clxxviii p. 4°.

Halle a. S., Germany. Statistische Monatsberichte der Stadt Halle a. S. Herausgegeben vom statistischen Amt. Jahrg. 6. 1912. no. 1-2. January–February.

Vital statistics, building construction, wholesale and retail prices, invalid and old age insurance, labor bureau, poor, libraries, legal aid bureau, bureau of child hygiene, milk depot, industrial and commercial courts, food inspection, municipal abattoir, gas, electricity and water supply, savings bank, street railways and schools.

Johannesburg, Transvaal. Municipal statistics for the month of January–March, 1912.

Vital statistics, building construction, municipal electric and gas plants and tramways, fires and water supply, municipal live stock market and abattoir.

Königsberg i. Pr. Monatsberichte des statistischen Amtes der Stadt. Jahrg 20. 1912, January–February.

Vital statistics, abattoir, retail and wholesale prices, municipal savings bank, street railways, labor bureau, industrial and commercial courts, tonnage of the port.

Launceston, Tasmania. The city of Launceston. 1911. 5 p., I leaf. 16°.

Current statistics, organization of city government, with a brief history of same.

Milan, Italy. Bollettino statistico mensile. Anno 28. 1912, January–February.

Sanitary inspection, vital statistics, abattoirs, price of foodstuffs, charities, building construction, fires, trams. Includes also a summary of council minutes.

——Dati statistici, a corredo del resoconto dell'amministrazione comunale. Anno 28. 1910. xxix, 455, 185, 13, 11, 8, xi p. 4°.

Detailed retroactive statistical tables on meteorology, births, deaths and marriages, traffic, various imposts, schools, prices of food stuffs, lighting, water supply. Accompanying the main report are the following:

"Statistica del movimento della popolazione e delle principali cause di morte per gli anni dal 1898 al 1910 per i compartimenti del Regno e le più importanti città italiane ed estere." 185 p.

This table shows statistics for the 19 largest Italian cities and 40 of the largest non-Italian cities.

"Ufficio dell'abitazione. Relazione. Relazioni statistica." Anno 3. 1910. 13 p.

"Fondo di previdenza del personale dipendente dalla Società Generale Edison di Elettricita addeti al servizio delle tramvie cittadine. 11 p.

"Refezione scolastica. Anno 1909–1910. 8 p.

"Statistica del servizio estinzione incendi. Anno 1910." xi p.

Moscow, Russia. Bulletin statistique mensuel de la ville de Moscou. 1911, December. no. 12.

Vital statistics, price of comestibles, stock market and abattoirs, municipal tramways, labor bureaus, fires.

Münich, Germany. Statistischer Monatsbericht der Stadt. 1912, January–February.

Vital statistics, building construction, baths, prices of food stuffs, police, municipal savings bank, municipal labor bureau, etc.

——Wochenberichte des statistischen Amtes. 1912, no. 9–14. Week beginning February 25–March 31.

Chiefly vital statistics and prices of foodstuffs.

Omaha, Neb. Municipal statistics. Published monthly by city comptroller. no. 1–11. June 1911–April, 1912.

Chiefly financial and tax statistics.

Street Cleaning

See also above "Administration in General" (Berlin, Brussels, Magdeburg, San Francisco).

Stockholm, Sweden. Stockholms renhållningsväsen från äldsta tider till våra dagar. Med 113 illustrationer. Af Karl Tingsten. 1911. vii, 168 p. 4°.

Street Railways

See also above "Statistics" (Florence, Halle a. S., Johannesburg, Königsberg i. Pr., Milan, Moscow).

Dortmund, Germany. Städtische Strassenbahn, Dortmund. Bericht vom 1. April 1910 bis 31. März, 1911. 4 p. f°.

Streets

See above "Public Works" (Buffalo).

Taxation

See above "Administration in General" (Paris), also "Finance" (Edinburgh, Los Angeles), also "Fires" (Melbourne), also "Statistics" (Omaha).

Traffic Regulation

See also above "Administration in General" (Brussels, Paris), Police (London), also "Statistics" (Berlin, Duisburg).

Great Britain. Board of Trade. Report (4th) of the London Traffic Branch of the Board of Trade, 1911. 162 p., 8 maps. f°.

A section of the report deals with population and migration of population in relation to traffic. The report includes a traffic census. The maps show respectively, density of population of Greater London in 1911, a comparison of the same in 1901 and 1911, the electric railways and electric and horse tramways in Greater London, etc.

Tuberculosis Eradication

See above "Administration in General" (Durban, Paris), also "Public Works" (Buffalo).

Water Supply and Sewerage

See also above "Administration in General" (Berlin, Boston, Brussels, Croydon, Durban, Magdeburg, Quedlinburg, San Francisco), also "Public Works" (Buffalo), also "Statistics" (Halle a. S., Johannesburg). See also under "Charters and Ordinances."

Auburn, N. Y. Report (18th) of the water board for the year ending December 31, 1911. 23 p. 8°.

During the year the city built a hypochlorite disinfecting plant for the treatment of the potable water supply. A list of cities using the hypochlorite treatment is given. Comment is also made on the increased use of the filtration method of treating municipal water supply. In 1890 less than 200,000 persons in the United States were being supplied with filtered water; in 1900 the number had increased to 1,868,000 and in 1904 to 3,160,000. In 1911 over 22 per cent of the city population of the United States were being supplied with filtered water. The average daily consumption of water in Auburn in 1911 was 6,307,748 gallons, or a per capita rate of 180 gallons. The total water service revenue to the city for the year was $104,015. William J. Henry is president of the board.

Burlington, Vt. Forty-fourth [sic, i.e., 45th] annual report of the water department. December 31, 1911. 18 p. 8°.

Chicago, Ill The water works system of the city of Chicago. Report of Dabney H. Maury to the Chicago commission on city expenditures. Published by the Chicago Bureau of Public Efficiency. December, 1911. 50 p., foldg. tables. 8°.

When the commission on city expenditures ("Merriam Commission") was dissolved in April, 1911, four of the twenty-one reports made by the commission to the city council, remained unprinted. The Chicago Efficiency Bureau has undertaken to print these four reports, Maury's Report on the water works' system being the first so printed.

Dortmund, Germany. Bericht über den Betrieb des städtischen Wasserwerks zu Dortmund vom 1. April, 1910, bis dahin 1911. 10 p., 1 chart. 4°.

Lewiston, Me. Annual report (31st) of the water board for the fiscal year ending February 28, 1911. 34 p. 8°.

On p. 5 is a table showing receipts and expenditures each year, 1880–1911, on p. 6 a table showing annual cost of construction 1878–1911, and on p. 14 the annual pumping record, 1880–1910.

London, Canada. Thirty-third annual report of the board of water commissioners for the year ending November 30, 1911. 69 p. 8°.

The year marked the advent of hydro-electric power in London. On p. 52 is a table showing the surplus revenue of London waterworks for each of the past twenty-eight years, viz., from 1884 to 1911. The report includes the first annual report of the electrical department which had been in operation but nine months. The ornamental street lighting equipment has been overhauled and numerous cuts show the various types of cluster lights in use.

Schenectady, N. Y. Twenty-sixth annual report of the bureau of water to November 1, 1911. 43 p.

George Haltzmann, superintendent. Includes, p. 29–43, the rules and regulations of the department.

Note: The population of the cities, etc., included in the preceding list is as follows: Aachen, 156,008; Aberdeen, 163,084; Auburn, 54,668; Battersea, 167,793; Berlin, 2,064,153; Besancon, 56,367; Bordeaux, 251,917; Boston, 670,585; Bremen, 246,827; Brookline, 27,792; Brünn, 108,944; Brussels, 665,806; Buf-

falo, 423,715; Burlington, 20,468; Caen, 44,442; Cambridge, 104,839; Chattanooga, 44,604; Chemnitz, 286,455; Chicago, 2,185,283; Cincinnati, 364,463; Cleveland, 560,663; Croydon, 169,559; Denver, 213,381; Dijon, 89,806; Dortmund, 214,333; Durban, 69,165; Düsseldorf, 356,733; Edinburgh, 320,315; Elizabeth, 73,409; Florence, 198,408; Frankfurt a. M., 414,598; Freiburg i. Br.,22,472; Halle a. S.,180,496; Hartford 98,915; Havre, 163,883; Houston, 78,800; Johannesburg, 120,411; Königsberg, i. Pr., 248,059; Königshütte o. Sch., 72,642; Launceston, 21,046; Lewiston, 26,247; London (Eng.), 4,227,954; London (Ont.), 46,300; Los Angeles, 319,198; Magdeburg, 279,629; Manistee, 12,381; Melbourne, 581,500; Milan, 490,084; Milwaukee, 373,857; Minneapolis, 301,408; Mons, 27,252; Moscow, 1,481,200; Munich, 596,467; New Bedford, 96,652; New Orleans, 339,075; New York City, 4,766,883; Newark, 347,469; Newtown, 39,806; Nürnberg, 332,539; Ogden, 25,580; Omaha, 124,096; Oswego, 23,368; Paris, 2,888,110; Parma, 48,523; Pawtucket, 51,622; Pittsburgh, 533,905; Plauen, 76,471; Portland, 58,571; Providence, 224,326; Quedlinburg, 23,373; Revere, 18,218; Richmond,22,324; Rixdorf, 237,369; Rochester, 218,149; Rome, 424,943; Saarbrücken, 105,101; St. Pancras, 218,453; St. Paul, 214,744; Salt Lake City, 92,777; San Antonio, 96,614; San Francisco, 416,912; Schenectady, 72,826; Seattle, 237,194; Shanghai, 423,250; Somerville, 77,236; Stockholm, 341,986; Troy, 76,813; Waltham, 27,834.

NATIONAL
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EXPERT CITY MANAGEMENT

BY HON. WILLIAM DUDLEY FOULKE[1]

WE AMERICANS have been a shifty and versatile people and we have come to believe that almost any man of us can do anything he puts his hand to. He can take up life in a new home, he can learn a new trade, he can do more kinds of things and do them fairly well than the native of any other country in the world. That was one of the needs and one of the results of our early pioneer life. That has been one of the things which have made us successful. We are now reaching a point, however, where every branch of our social and industrial life is becoming specialized, and greater skill is constantly required of each single member in his particular line of work. This is just as true in government as it is in industrial life. We can no longer be content with officials who do many things indifferently; it is important that we should have in each place a man who can do thoroughly well the things which pertain to the particular place he fills.

There are some few branches of city government in which the need for expert work has always been clear. A mayor and council would hardly think of trying to erect important public buildings without an architect or to lay out a system of sewers without an engineer. In the health department it has long been the habit to have some kind of a physician at the head and some sort of a lawyer for the position of city attorney. There are other branches of administration, however, where in common opinion "Anybody will do" and these places most of all have been the snug berths of ignorant politicians. Take, for example, the street cleaning department. What can be simpler than to send out a gang of unskilled laborers, and to let them spend so many hours each day in lazily piling dust and refuse into heaps, shoveling it into carts and taking it off to the dump pile? Surely no expert knowledge is necessary for that!

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[1] Annual address as president of the National Municipal League delivered at the Eighteenth Annual Meeting held in Los Angeles, July 8–12, 1912. Mr. Foulke has studied the municipal problem at home and abroad and for years has been identified with the civil service movement both as a member of the National Civil Service Reform League and as a member of the federal civil service commission.

And what is the result? The streets of our American cities, especially in the slums where health conditions are most critical and the greatest care is required, are often in a detestable condition, with piles of filth, lying for long periods—slimy mud when it rains, and clouds of dust when it is dry and the wind whirls them through open windows breeding disease and death. The streets of most European cities, on the other hand are well nigh as clean as the floors of the dwellings. Why this difference? In Europe, the work is done by a trained force under the management of experts.

The entire problem of street cleaning, like the application of efficiency methods everywhere requires high expert knowledge and a wide grasp of many subjects. Let us consider a few of the things that the superintendent of this department ought to know.

He should know in detail the relations between cleanliness and sanitation. To work effectively he must work in close coöperation with the health department as well as with the police and with the departments in control of the construction and repair of the streets and of public and private buildings and excavations. He must understand the materials and methods of construction which make the most solid highways and will best prevent the needless accumulation of dirt. He should know in what way the erection of buildings may be accomplished with least injury to the streets; and what methods of highway and underground construction and repair will least interfere with cleanliness. He must understand in detail all the causes which produce dust and filth and the measures necessary to eliminate them. It is now well known that from 60 to 90 per cent of the dirt upon our streets can be prevented by the enforcement of suitable regulations and that the cost of cleaning the streets can thereby be proportionately reduced.

He must understand the best methods for the removal of snow and ice in winter and for preventing injury from slippery streets and sidewalks. A superintendent in a city I know, who had permitted filth to accumulate in the early spring until certain alleys and streets became impassable, gravely announced that it would be useless to clean them until the ice and snow had melted!

The superintendent of street cleaning must be acquainted with the character, the operation and the relative value of the appliances and machines for the removal of dirt and must know where he can best use a machine and where it is best to use hand work, where he should sprinkle, where he should sweep and where he should flush the streets and must be able to make an accurate estimate of the cost of each method (including the water) for every hundred square yards. He must know how to arrange the hours of work, preferably in the night or early morning when it will least incommode and injure the public. German cities are swept with military precision. Work does not begin in the crowded parts of the city till the people are in bed. First comes the sprinkler, then the sweeper and then the gangs of men to heap the dirt in piles, then the carts to carry it away.

These cities put their departments in charge of a municipal engineer. Take, for example, Dresden, where the street superintendent is not only a "baumeister" but is an instructor in the Royal Technical high school and has recently published a work on *Street Cleaningin the German Cities*, treating of every branch of his complicated duties.

Another branch of city government where there is startling discrepancy between the administration of our cities and those of western Europe is the building department. In America enormous damage is inflicted by fires through the improper construction of buildings, involving often great destruction of life as well as of property. The great fires of Chicago, Boston, Baltimore and San Francisco would have been impossible in Germany. I once witnessed the German fire department putting out a fire. The appliances seemed ridiculously small, there was no crowd nor excitement. The fire had broken out in the third story of an apartment building and was blazing in such a shape as with us would presuppose the total destruction of the building. Yet people were quietly looking out of the windows above and below without any thought of moving or of danger to themselves. In a few minutes the blaze was extinguished. It could not pass beyond the apartment where it originated. The building was *actually fire-proof*. It was not the fire department, but the building department to which the credit of this immunity was due. Each building in the city is subject to such thorough supervision and control by competent expert authorities that fires cannot spread.

The most important object of conservation is the life and health of our people and the degree to which these may be conserved by a skillful and energetic health department is only beginning to be realized. Let us take one subject alone; infant mortality. The life of the infant depends largely upon its food supply. Its food is milk and the milk supply of our cities is an accurate thermometer of infant mortality. The proper care of that supply under the efficient administration of Dr. Goler in Rochester diminished by *more than one-half* the number of deaths of children under five years of age during the summer months. The germs of typhoid, diphtheria, scarlet fever and enteric tuberculosis are responsible for the greater part of infant mortality and the danger from these can be obviated by expert supervision. Similar control of the supplies of meat and vegetables, supervision of drainage, the adequate segregation of all those afflicted by contagious diseases are only a part of the duties of health officers. How indispensable are the services of the best kind of experts in the management of the health department of a great city!

Experts are needed to manage the financial department of a city; to design and apply a system of uniform book-keeping which will fully show the exact condition of municipal finances; to prepare a proper budget each year, and wherever a city has control of taxation direct or indirect, to aid in the establishment of a system which will secure the largest income with the least burden upon the citizens. There are no questions that require more scientific treatment than those involved in municipal taxation. Closely akin to this subject is that of the bestowal of franchises and the making of contracts with public utility corporations which will secure the best returns to the city for the privileges granted in the use of city streets and other property. The public utility commissions of our leading states and cities require the highest kind of expert service. Such commissions furnish the best methods known for the supervision and the regulation of rates of water companies, light, heat and power companies, central heating plants, telephone companies, street car companies, etc. Only by expert inspection and scientific accounting can the abuses of private monopoly be overcome and these public service corporations be made to give adequate service at fair rates and at the same time be protected from unreasonable public demands. These are only illustrations from the bulk.

Experts are abundantly necessary in every branch of city government. How shall they be selected? They ought not to be chosen by election. The citizens should be supreme as to all questions of general policy, but the mass of the voters are ill qualified to pass upon the personal qualifications of great numbers of candidates to administer the various branches of the city government. Wherever there is a long ballot with thirty or forty officials to be elected it is impossible that the people generally can learn of the deserts of more than a very few of these candidates.

The council and the mayor (or the commission, where that form is adopted) ought to carry out the wishes of the citizens as to all general lines of city policy and they must supervise and direct the things to be done. It does not follow, however, that they are themselves the best qualified persons to do the work or to appoint the administrative officers by whom it shall be done. In the matter of securing competent experts to carry out the details of administration the members of a city council or commission are perhaps just as inefficient as the great body of the people would be. Their personal and political interests and prejudices and sometimes their ignorance as to the special qualifications of particular candidates lead to log rolling, partiality and bad appointments.

In the federal government it was found that the attempt to select administrative officials by the personal discretion of those in authority and especially at the dictation of congressmen led to the spoils system. Bad men were selected as a reward for the baser political services. The time and efforts of those in authority was wasted in the distribution of places and elections were corrupted by those who sought or filled public offices. It was found that there was a better way of making these selections and that was to investigate the qualifications of those who applied, first by competitive examinations and then by probation. Hence the civil service law and the competitive system. This law is essential to good government. No one can compare the clean sweep and the corruption which formerly prevailed with the orderly selection of public officials and employees today without realizing the immense improvement which has been made in the federal service by the change.

How far can the competitive system be made to apply? At its begining large classes of federal employees were excepted, expert positions for example and high administrative places because it was then considered that no expert or administrator of distinction would submit to schoolmasters' examinations.

These exceptions, however, have gradually faded away.

Such positions are no longer excluded because it is not now true that men of high professional and scientific attainments will not compete. The examinations are indeed no longer pedagogic in character. The examiners are not the ordinary subordinates of the civil service commission, but special experts of high rank and character are called in to pass upon the qualifications of competitors. Professional men and scientists feel that there is no degradation in submitting to an investigation of their past education and experience and in preparing a thesis upon the duties of their office and the proper organization and administration of the department they desire to superintend. Hence there is no dearth of competitors. In the examination for chief irrigation engineer in the Indian service, an announcement of the United States civil service commission brought eighty-five applicants, all qualified along certain engineering lines. Twenty-two could fully meet the requirements of the position and those who obtained the highest ratings are believed to have been among the best engineers in the country.

The admirable results of this kind of an investigation is already shown. In the federal service some of the most eminent positions, for instance, that of supervising architect of the treasury in charge of the construction of our most important public buildings, have been thus filled. Since June 30, 1910, appointments were made to the following places by this sort of investigation, at salaries ranging from $2400 to $4800 per annum; professor of chemistry in the public health and marine service; law examiner in the bureau of mines; chemists and engineers of all kinds and in various branches of the service; assistant director in the office of public roads; examiner of accounts in the interstate commerce commission; soil scientist and agronomists in rice and grain investigations in the department of agriculture; forest pathologists in the bureau of plant industry; superintendent of the light-house service; associate statistician of the interstate commerce commission; Indian reservation superintendent.

It will be observed that these investigations call for qualifications that are both scientific, professional and administrative. For instance, the superintendent of Indian reservations and of the light-house service need high administrative qualifications. The results in these high grade examinations have continued satisfactory.

Let us take an examination paper of one of these investigations, for example, for Indian reservation superintendent. The applicant is required to give names and addresses of ten persons, not related to him, five of whom have been in subordinate or superior business relations with him and have personal knowledge of his qualifications and will answer questions regarding him. Inquiries are made of these persons. He is next required to submit a complete statement of his general education, the institutions where he has studied, the time spent and dates, the courses pursued and degrees, if any, conferred. He must state the facts of his life, describe his environment, tell of his occupations and also submit a statement of his special training in (a) business management; (b) political science; (c) economics; (d) applied sociology; (e) history. These matters relate to his general and specific education and have a rating of three out of ten in determining his appointment. He must next furnish a complete statement of his experience in managing men and describe his method of dealing with them; he must show how he would meet such problems as the keeping of employees contented in an isolated place; the handling of lazy men, bad tempered men, enthusiastic and tactless employees and an Indian "the tenth time he asks the same question." He must state his experience in questions relating to applied sociology, such as social settlement work and his actual dealings with Indians; and his experience in an *executive* capacity showing the number of men under him and the degree of responsibility involved. This special experience counts for four in a total of ten. The third subject is an essay to test general intelligence counting one point only and the fourth subject is a thesis setting forth what he would do if appointed superintendent of the reservation or school. This counts two points. For some positions oral tests are also required to give the examiners a better knowledge of the personality of the candidate.

Such examinations furnish essentially the same bases of judgment as those which an ordinary employer of men, the president of a large corporation for instance, uses in seeking new subordinates whom he does not personally know.

It used to be thought that positions in the legal department could not be made subject to competitive examinations; but now many of the highest officers in that department recognize that competitive tests are better than those heretofore employed. W. T. Dennison, an assistant United States attorney general in an address to the National Civil Service Reform League in December, 1910, declared that *excepting only a position in the cabinet* which was political, there were no legal places which could not be better filled by competitive appointment or promotion than by the political system which has been its only alternative. Competitive principles have been extended in Kansas City to assistant corporation counsel; in Cook County, Illinois, to the assistant county attorney; in New York and Buffalo to deputy assistant corporation counsel; in New York State to various assistants to the attorney general, and in Wisconsin to all but one of the deputy attorneys of the state.

The federal civil service has been the pioneer in the reform system, but in some cases the leading cities of the country have now gone quite as far as the national government in providing competitive examinations for high positions. Kansas City offers a striking example of the advantages of the merit system, the business of all departments having been increased with a saving in expenses. Under the old system the auditor was chosen by popular vote. The new charter provided that he should be a certified accountant, an expert, and from April, 1910, when the new system began, to August, 1911, the expenses were about half what they had been during any similar period in previous years.

In New York the chief of the fire department was selected on a competitive promotion examination and Deputy Chief Kenlon who stood head of the list and was appointed is ranked as perhaps the most competent executive fireman in the country.

In Philadelphia the superintendent of the General Hospital, the chief of the bureau of highways and street cleaning, an office with a salary of $6000, and nine assistant commissioners of highways have been filled successfully by competitive examinations.

In Chicago the competitive system embraces the auditor, the deputy controller, the city architect, the city engineer, the deputy commissioner of public works, the assistant city treasurer, the superintendent of the bureau of water, streets and sewers, the assistant commissioner of health, the assistant superintendent of police, the deputy commissioner of buildings and the assistant fire marshal (offices at salaries ranging from $4000 to $8000), and most significant perhaps of all, the librarian of Chicago's great public library when a competitive test in which such men as Herbert Putnam, Librarian of Congress, acted on an examining board, resulted in the choice of Henry E. Legler, one of the most eminent expert librarians in America.

Who shall say after this that the competitive system is not adapted to the highest administrative and expert places in a city government?

In order to secure the best experts the service must be made attractive. This can only be done by making it well paid, permanent, and with the highest places attainable through meritorious service. Men will not go through the years of technical training required unless there be a prospect of remunerative work and a steady job.

It is not necessary to change the mere administrators of city government with each political overturn. When the government of England is overthrown in a parliamentary election scarcely a hundred men in the public service are removed from office. Harriman when he reorganized the Union and Southern Pacific railroads and changed their policies, kept in the experts who were managing the system, and J. J. Hill when he reorganized the Northern Pacific, made only one important change. The places therefore should be permanent during good behavior and efficient service. Every city official should be removable for cause (not political cause; removals upon any such ground should be forbidden) but only for cause affecting the good of the service. An officer should be removed if he is dishonest, corrupt, lazy, stupid, superannuated or inefficient, or if he fails to carry out the order of his political superior, but there should be no power to remove him capriciously, otherwise he might become the mere political tool of his superior. He should be compelled to obey orders but he should have the right to require that such orders should be in writing and on record and that he too should have the privilege of placing on record any reasons why he considered them unwise or unadvisable so that the responsibility for issuing them should be fixed exactly where it belonged.

The expert (like all subordinate city employees) should be removable only on charges and he should have a right to place upon a public record any answer he may choose to make to such charge.

Whether there should be any formal trial is more questionable, and still more so whether a court should intervene to prevent removals. The political head of the department should not be too closely limited in the right to control subordinates, and the interference of courts may lead to vexations and delays so great that the superior officer will often decline to take the risk of failure and will rather permit incompetent men to remain. The federal rule, permitting the superior to make removals at will after a statement of reasons and an opportunity to answer would seem the wiser plan. The chief protection against unjust removals should be the criticism of the public and the fact that those who make them cannot fill the places with their own creatures where the merit system prevails. So much for permanency of tenure.

To make expert service attractive, however, the very highest places must be attainable by those who would make such service their life career and who perform their duty faithfully and well. If promotion stops at the lower grades why should any energetic and ambitious young man choose public employment?

We can hardly overestimate the importance of securing the very best technical service for our larger cities. It is not the politicians, not even the people at large who have initiated the great modern improvements in city governments, but experts, sanitary and civil engineers, architects and landscape gardeners, bacteriologists, physicians, educators and philanthropists. No city can hope to stand high in municipal progress unless it secures the best expert service for its municipal work.

Here in Los Angeles you propose in your new charter to apply to your city the commission form of government and nobody can doubt after the experience of over two hundred cities in which that form has been successful that it is an improvement upon those that have preceded it. It is simpler; it fixes responsibility; it provides for a reasonably short ballot (though not so short perhaps as a municipal ballot ought to be). The commission form of government, though an important step in municiapl progress may not represent the final ideal. It does not clearly separate policy determining functions from administrative work. The commission is not only to be your legislative body, but each commissioner is to be the administrative head of his own department and I think it will be found in the future that all purely administrative work can best be done by experts selected by the competitive system and not chosen by the people at large. Therefore I am not sure that the provision in your charter giving liberal salaries to each commissioner and providing that he shall devote all his time to the public service of the city is a wise one. I am inclined to think that the very best service in the determination of policies will be rendered by public spirited citizens who are not so paid and who are required to devote only a small portion of their time to public duties and, under them, experts, with a permanent tenure should do the whole administrative work; experts who are well paid, who devote all their time to their work; experts who are chosen not from Los Angeles alone, nor even from California, but from any part of this great country, or of the world, wherever you can find the one who can best furnish the kind of service you need.

In some of the most successful German cities the law provides that every citizen is bound, is required, to give three years unpaid service to his municipality. This service is to be rendered at times which do not seriously interfere with the prosecution of ordinary business. The representative assembly meets one evening and the executive board two evenings in each week and a man's service in these bodies is regarded as his tribute to the public and as his patriotic duty. In addition to this there are other members of the municipal board who are paid, who are experts and who, as well as the burgomeister, devote their whole time to the service of the city. The burgomeister is himself an expert, he is chosen by promotion from other cities and holds office for the term of twelve years.

We cannot bodily adopt the German system here. No doubt we must still elect a mayor who shall devote his whole time to the city and who cannot be, in the present stage of our political traditions, an expert of the same character as the German burgomeister; but we can well provide that the other commissioners, who determine a city's policy, shall be unpaid or very moderately compensated, serving principally from motives of professional and personal pride and public duty and devoting only part of their time to the city's business and that under them all high administrative officers shall be experts selected by the competitive system without reference to any kind of politics. I believe that this will be the organization of the ideal city of the future. Perhaps you cannot do that now. Probably the form of city government you have proposed is the best now attainable, but this much can be done, under your proposed charter. You can provide that *under the seven commisioners practically every place shall be filled by experts chosen by competitive methods.* The fewer the exceptions the better the result.

In most of the cities where the commission form of government is adopted there are some rudimentary provisions for the merit system and for a civil service commission, but these have been put in as a side issue, quite subordinate to the general features of the commission plan. This is a mistake; there is nothing more vital to good municipal government than the establishment of an efficient civil service system. You may have the Des Moines plan or the Lockport plan or the federal plan or the German plan of city organization and produce good or bad results with them all, but you can never have efficient city government with our present political traditions until you have established an able, upright, *independent* civil service commission. Here is the crux of the whole matter, the most vital point in securing administrative ability. For if the general city commissioners can appoint and remove at will the civil service commission they can force that commission to do anything they like; to make unnecessary exceptions, improper classifications, lax rules or fraudulent examinations so that their own creatures may secure and keep the offices.

If the mayor and seven commissioners are to appoint your civil service commission they ought not to have the right to remove any commissioner arbitrarily. I notice the proposal that all officers (except those in the competitive service) may be recalled by the people. This is a wise but cumbrous proceeding and will not often be applied. Some independent supervision of the civil service commission ought to be added. In New York the city civil service commissions are subject to supervision by the state civil service commission which must approve of the rules adopted and of the classification of offices, and which has full power to investigate all acts of the local body and may remove any member after charges and a hearing, by unanimous vote. In practice the supervision of the state commission has led to stricter rules and a better enforcement of the law.

Indeed the civil service commission itself should be either composed of experts or it should have an expert executive officer, for on that commission will devolve the duty of applying to the civil service of a city the new efficiency methods which are becoming an important feature in government as well as in industrial undertakings. Hitherto a civil service commission has been used mainly to secure entrance to the service upon merit and to keep the spoils system out. With the management of the different departments and bureaus the commission has had nothing to do. In Chicago, however, a new field has been opened.. There the commission was empowered by law (as it should be everywhere) to investigate the service from time to time, and under this authority it proceeded to develop an efficiency system for the whole city systematizing the different departments, promoting the individual efficiency of employees and insuring fairness in the city's treatment of them. The examiners of the civil service commission kept a record of the work of each employee with monthly averages showing from daily report sheets the quality of their work, attendance, discipline and demerits. Quality of work was further subdivided. Clerks, for example, were marked on industry, accuracy, quantity of work and attitude; chiefs of bureaus and divisions on executive ability, initiative, industry, cost of work, supervision of subordinates. The standard required was 80 per cent and if the average of an employee fell below 70 per cent, charges for removal were preferred. The investigation by the commission showed that among the teamsters for instance 30 per cent of the men went home every day at one o'clock and none hauled over six loads a week. A trifling change increased the number of loads 50 per cent and a further change in the location of the dumps would raise the standard 100 per cent. Superfluous helpers were eliminated and a few supervisory regulations increased by 20 per cent the weight of each load; all at a saving of $77,000 a year.

This is only one illustration of widely extended reforms introduced by experts and supervised by the civil service commission in Chicago. They can be still further developed and applied to other cities as an important feature of expert municipal management.

All these suggestions are made with the view of providing better machinery than we have at present for securing good administration in city affairs. Yet good administration cannot be produced by any mere machinery. A city must depend for its excellence upon its citizens and not upon any form of government though that form be the best in the world. Some kinds of machinery will produce better results than others, but no machinery can do anything without a proper application of motive power. That motive power in all government is the human will. In the case of a city it is the will of the body of the citizens. Their constant determination to secure pure, just, and effective administration is the only thing that will accomplish that result. No devices however ingenious can supply the defect of a patriotic spirit in the people and no form of government however clumsy can wholly fail where that spirit generally exists.

It is the public welfare which is the supreme object of government and unless men resolutely struggle for the public welfare they will not secure it. Hence the first and most essential work of all who would improve their government is to stimulate that spirit of patriotism; patriotism which must extend not only to our nation and our state, but also to our city. It was always the city which in ancient days was the object of the deepest and intensest love and pride. Listen to the tribute of Pericles to Athens in that great oration where he sets forth the character and spirit of the city that he loved:

> In the political language of the day we are called a democracy, for the administration is in the hands of the many and not of the few. But while the law secures equal justice to all alike, the claim of excellence is also recognized; and when a citizen is in any way distinguished, he is preferred to the public service, not as a matter of privilege, but as the reward of merit. Neither is poverty a bar, but a man may serve his country whatever be the obscurity of his condition. . . . .
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> . . . . We are lovers of the beautiful, yet simple in our tastes and we cultivate the mind without loss of manliness. Wealth we employ, not for talk and ostentation, but when there is a real use for it. To avow poverty with us is no disgrace; the true disgrace is in doing nothing to avoid it. An Athenian citizen does not neglect the state because he takes care of his own household; and even those of us who are engaged in business have a very fair idea of politics. We regard a man who takes no interest in public affairs, not as a harmless, but as a useless character; and if few of us are originators, we are all sound judges of a policy. The great impediment to action is, in our opinion, not discussion, but the want of that knowledge which is gained by discussion preparatory to action. . . . . I would have you day by day fix your eyes upon the greatness of Athens, until you become filled with the love of her; and when you are impressed by the spectacle of her glory, reflect that her dominion has been acquired by men who knew their duty and had the courage to do it, who in the hour of conflict had the fear of dishonor always present to them, and who, if ever they failed in an enterprise, would not allow their virtues to be lost to their country, but freely gave their lives to her as the fairest offering which they could present at her feast.

Athens indeed, was well worthy of his eulogy. In all the generations and centuries since that day, she has been to all mankind "a city set upon a hill" whose light could not be dimmed by time nor hidden by forgetfulness. Let her example shine on us today.

In every Christian community the perfect city has been the final form into which was fashioned the dream of saint and seer. When, after degenerate Rome had been sacked by the barbarian, Augustine unfolded to the early mediaeval church the aspirations of the new faith and set before its eyes the ideal of a perfect social order, he entitled his great work *The City of God*.

It is in the form of a perfect city that the Bible figures to mankind the dreams of paradise. In one of the last chapters of Revelations the apostle declares, "And I, John, saw the holy city, the new Jerusalem, coming down from God out of Heaven prepared as a bride adorned for her husband." He saw from Patmos in his apocalyptic vision, the golden sunlight and the assembled clouds and amid their radiance, a city, not fixed immutably in heaven—no—but coming down to earth, filled with human vitality and sympathetic inspiration.

Whatever be our faith, let that be the ideal of each of us for the city he inhabits. Let that be the golden dream toward which our efforts tend. The city "coming down from God out of Heaven prepared as a bride adorned for her husband." However sordid its surroundings now, however it may reek with filth and squalor, vice and disease and poverty and degradation and all forms of ugliness and suffering, let that be the image into which we would re-create the city that we love.

"Coming down from God out of Heaven" filled with His justice, His loving kindness and tender mercy and shining with His eternal joy!

"Prepared as a bride adorned for her husband" with wreath and veil and jewels—not the jewels of mere physical adornment—comfortable homes, superb public edifices, commodious schools, stately churches, broad shady highways, ample marts for commerce and factories for industry, spacious parks and groves for recreation and delight—a city not only adorned with painting and statuary and flawless architecture, but one whose fair countenance beams with every spiritual grace, with the blushes of purity and the tears of tenderness, eyes that can awaken hope in the bosom of despair and a heart that cherishes the well being of the humblest of her children as her deepest concern. A city where their health is guarded with a mother's care, where the light of knowledge illumines every household, where fraternal love prevails, where the spirit of fair dealing and a purpose to do right is the motive power behind every action. This is an ideal we will not wholly attain but according to the measure in which we approach it will our city become more and more a source of pride and happiness to all who dwell therein and will draw closer and closer to the realization of John's vision of the perfect "City of God."

TEN YEARS OF COMMISSION GOVERNMENT

BY PROFESSOR WILLIAM BENNETT MUNRO[1]

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JUST about a decade has passed since the system of city government by commission made its appearance in Galveston. Its introduction there was the result of extraordinary circumstances and the commission plan was not looked upon as affording a new frame of city government which could be extended throughout the land and adopted by cities to their permanent advantage. But the experiment proved a signal success in Galveston; it was soon extended to other Texan cities; then it moved northward, gathering popularity as it proceeded. In ten years the system of commission government has established itself in over 200 cities scattered through twenty states of the Union.

It ought to be pointed out, however, that this triumphal progress has not really been so remarkable as the bare figures seem to indicate. Of these 200 or more cities, about half are places with less than 5000 population where the problem of local administration is not one of great difficulty. Our real problems of urban government have developed in cities of 100,000 or over. There are now about 50 such cities in the United States; but of these only 7 have as yet adopted the commission plan. Moreover, of the 25 cities which have populations of from about 200,000 upward, only one has put the new scheme of government into operation. With a very few exceptions, therefore, commission government has been given its trial in the medium-sized cities of the country where, from the nature of things, the load placed upon it has not been very heavy.

Attention should furthermore be called to the fact that although the commission plan has found adoption in one or more cities throughout twenty states of the Union, its spread has been nevertheless somewhat more localized than this general statement implies. Outside of Texas the new frame of government has not made great extensions in the states of the south; its progress in New England has been slow; it has not found much favor in the middle states, as may be judged from the fact that no city in New York state has thus far given allegiance to the plan. Its progress has been chiefly in the southeast, in the middle west, the northwest, and in the states of the Pacific seaboard. In other words, the plan of commission government has proved popular, for the most part, in those sections of the country where the so-termed progressive political ideas have found it easy to gain a foothold. This is natural enough in view of the fact that the commission charters adopted by cities in these various sections of the United States have contained a great deal more in the way of radical change than a simple provision for government by a board of five commissioners. In most cases they have brought into operation such new features as the open primary, the short ballot without party designations, the initiative and referendum, the recall, and have made so many other striking departures from the old system of city government that the change from mayor and city council to a simple commission can be said to rank as only one of several features in the charter.

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This paper was read at the Los Angeles meeting of the National Municipal League.

One might say, in fact, that the commission plan made its way into the arena of municipal reform at the proper psychological moment. It adjusted itself readily to other features in the general program of municipal regeneration, indeed it gained much strength from the fact that it harmonized so well with these. The commission scheme, when first proposed, encountered the objection that so great a concentration of power in a few hands would be dangerous. This objection carried weight in many minds and the plan would scarcely have met with its present-day favor, particularly in the west, had its supporters not seized upon the machine of direct legislation and the recall as affording a means whereby unremitting responsibility of the commission to the people could be secured. Commission government has therefore made headway not alone under its own steam but through the momentum given it by the vigorous propaganda for nomination reform, the short ballot and direct legislation. One must accordingly be careful not to attribute the remarkable spread of commission government to its own inherent and demonstrated merits. It has had powerful allies in gaining a hold upon public confidence.

When the agitation for the adoption of the commission plan took definite and forceful shape a half-dozen years ago, the sponsors of the scheme promised that it would bring about great improvements both in the personnel and in the work of city administration. How far have these promises been fulfilled? The experience that we have now put behind us is not extensive and varied enough to give an absolutely sure basis for broad generalization; yet the lapse of a decade has put some things to proof and of these one may speak with reasonable assurance.

In the first place we were told at the outset that the commission plan would serve to install better men in municipal office. The vice of the old régime in city administration was that with a multitude of posts to be filled by election, men of little experience and less capacity made their way readily into official posts. Indeed, a premium was placed upon mediocrity. The concentration of the voters' attention upon a few candidates would serve greatly to raise the calibre of the officials chosen, it was said, and the substantial business men of the community would replace the professional politicians at the city hall.

How far has this improvement in personnel been secured? That, after all, is a very important question, for in the last analysis efficient city administration is as much (if not more) a question of men than of measures. The relative calibre of officeholders is something which does not lend itself readily to statistical measurement, but our experience, so far as it goes, has demonstrated that the class of men who hold office under the commission form of government is substantially the same as that which managed to secure election under the old order of affairs. I have satisfied myself on that point by examining the make-up of 10 commissions in as many cities—or 50 commissioners in all. Of these 50, elected under the new arrangements, no fewer than 36 were men who had held some sort of office in their respective cities before the commission type of government was established. When over 70 per cent of the new officials prove to be men who were connected with city administration in the days preceding reform it can scarcely be urged that the commission system has managed to secure a new type of officeholder.

It can fairly be said, however, that while the change to commission government has not revolutionized the type of official secured by the city, it has permitted men of the same calibre to achieve vastly better results. This it has done by the simplification of official machinery and by the concentration of responsibility in fewer hands. In a dozen or more cities the experience has been that a man who made a very ineffective alderman or councillor or administrative official under the old system of divided powers has succeeded in doing excellent work as a commissioner under the new frame of government.

In the second place the sponsors of the commission plan assured us some years ago that their scheme of urban administration would secure a reduction in municipal expenditures. On the whole the commission form of government has failed to do anything of the kind. In some cities the introduction of the new system has been followed by some reduction in the annual expenditures; but this has been the exception rather than the rule. More often than not the new administration has made heavier demands upon the taxpayers than the old. This does not mean, of course, that commission governments have been wasteful or extravagant. On the contrary the establishment of commission government has everywhere put an end to expensive leakages and has resulted in giving the citizens far better value for funds expended.[2] Des Moines, the Iowan capital, affords an excellent example of all this. But on the whole it has been found that, for any sort of satisfactory service, the people of most cities must be prepared to spend as much as they are now devoting to annual appropriations, and perhaps even more. It is not a question of lowering the tax rate but rather of getting more efficient service for the same expenditure of public money. Those who expected that the new form of government would secure financial retrenchment have been in many cases disappointed; but those who looked rather to see the city get one hundred cents in value for every dollar disbursed will find that, in general, their expectations have been fulfilled.

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[2] See, for further examples, Dr. E. S. Bradford's article on "Financial Results under the Commission Form of Government" in the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, July, 1912.

In a few cities the fundamental principles of the commission plan have been set aside, and it is not improbable that the departure from the original system will, if carried to any extent, greatly impair the efficiency of commission government. The simple principles upon which the commission plan is founded are, first, that members of the commission should be broad-gauge amateurs with no administrative expertness, second, that these commissioners should secure qualified experts for all technical posts within their jurisdiction. In keeping with these principles the commission charter ought to provide for two things: first, the selection of commissioners without reference to their skill in any particular department of administration; and, second, provision for a well-administered merit system of selecting their subordinates.

In Galveston and Des Moines, the two pioneers in the development of commission government, the charters provide that the commissioners shall be chosen without any designation of departments which they are to supervise. In other words (with the exception of the mayor or presiding officer of the commission), the commissioners are selected as a body and after being constituted they themselves apportion the administrative work of the city among the five members. That procedure is quite in keeping with the idea that commissioners should be laymen, not administrative experts. But in some few cities (as, for example, in Lynn, Massachusetts, and Grand Junction, Colorado) a significant departure from this plan can be found. In those cities each commissioner is chosen by the voters directly to the headship of a designated department. That is to say, one is elected commissioner of finance, another commissioner of public works, a third commissioner of public health, and so on. Under such a system the voters are almost sure to look for such qualifications on the part of candidates who come forward. They take it for granted that the director or supervisor of finance, for instance, ought to be some one who, before his election, has had a connection with financial affairs; that the commissioner or supervisor of public health ought to be a physician; and that the commissioner or supervisor of public works ought preferably to be an engineer or a man of experience as a contractor. The result is that, under this system of choosing department heads, the candidate with special qualifications of an inferior sort is quite apt to be preferred to the man of much broader calibre whose claims are more general in scope but vastly better in their quality. It is difficult to resist the impression that if commissioners are to be elected to designated duties, an essential principle of the whole commission scheme, which is that the commissioners supply the amateur element in city government, will be set aside. A second-rate engineer ought not to be preferred under any plan of local government to a first-rate banker or business man as commissioner of streets; yet if special qualifications are to be placed before the public imagination he undoubtedly would have a decided advantage at the polls. To lay stress upon the technical qualifications of the individual commissioners is, accordingly, to impair the strongest feature of the whole commission plan, which is the combination of strictly amateur with strictly expert administration, each operating within its own sphere. It is much to be hoped, therefore, that the examples of Lynn and Grand Junction will not be widely followed.

It is likewise to be feared that a good many commission governed cities have allowed themselves to be deluded into the idea that the mere establishment of the new framework of government sufficiently guarantees thorough improvements in the method of conducting public business. Some commission charters seem to have taken it for granted that any able-bodied citizen can be transformed into a municipal expert by the alchemy of a popular vote. Yet nothing can be plainer than the fact that a change from wasteful and slovenly to efficient business methods cannot be secured by the simple expedient of placing all responsibility in the hands of five men who happen to be designated by popular vote with appropriate titles. Commission charters have been too commonly deficient in the matter of definite provisions or expert service. Their framers seem to forget that the chief responsibility for success or failure in the proper conduct of the city's affairs must rest not upon the commissioners themselves but upon the municipal officials whom they employ.

Another defect of commission charters which has become very apparent during the last half-dozen years is their failure to give due attention to what might be called the business provisions of the city's organic law. So much care is bestowed on the political provisions of the charter, upon the methods of nomination, the form of the ballot, the number and remuneration of commissioners, the assignment of functions among them, and to all such matters, that little room has been left for the various detailed provisions concerning checks upon undue borrowing, scientific budget making, modern methods of accounting, and the score of other matters which are of imperative consequence in making the administrative affairs of the city run satisfactorily.

These are some of the shortcomings which the experience of a decade discloses in the actual operation of the commission plan. They are not of great importance and all are easily capable of remedy. On the other hand, the system of government by commission has, as its sponsors promised it would do, put an end to that intolerable scattering of powers and duties and responsibilities which the old type of administration promoted to the point of absurdity. It has not freed city administration from all good ground for criticism. No system could do that, but it has brought things to such a pass that when administration is faulty there are definite shoulders upon which to lay the blame. Local issues are no longer clouded by shifty deals between several municipal authorities. The plan has made possible the introduction of business methods in city administration as the experience of at least a score of cities during the past half-dozen years amply proves. To measure any city administration in terms of economy or efficiency with private business management is unfair unless large allowances are made; for it should never be forgotten that a city government, whether it be a mayor and council or a small commission, must give the citizens the sort of administration they want, and this is not always synonomous with what is best or cheapest. Commission government, furthermore, has enabled cities to conduct their business without administrative friction and delay. It has promoted a proper spirit of discipline in all ranks of the city's service and has helped to put an end to the errors and abuses that formerly went under the name of patronage.

On the whole, the objections commonly urged against the new system have not materialized in actual operation. It was urged that the concentration of appropriating and spending powers in the same hands would prove dangerous and objectionable, but in none of the cities which have adopted the commission type of government has this fusion of powers brought unsatisfactory results. On the contrary, the experience of these cities seems to indicate that this blending of appropriating and expending powers possesses some distinct advantages over the old plan of separation. It seems to inspire greater care in making the appropriations and to promote greater success in keeping within them when made. Under its influence commission budgets are, so far as recent experience goes, framed with far more regard for the interests of the whole city than council budgets have usually been. Commissions, moreover, have not proved to be less capable in handling expenditures than were the uncoördinated boards and officials that formerly had such functions in charge. The indictment of commission government on this score can draw no evidence whatever to its support.

As is too frequently the practice of those who stand sponsors for reform, the advocates of commission government have been disposed to promise more than their plan can expect permanently to achieve. To hope that this or any other system will prove a self-executing instrument of civic righteousness is to avow an optimism which shows scant knowledge of man as a political being. But under the commission plan many cities have secured a frame of government which the average voter can understand; and a government that is to be responsible to the people must first of all be intelligible to them. Not least among the accomplishments of the commission movement has been the fact that it linked itself with and drew into operation a dozen features that have helped to secure improvement in various branches of municipal administration, such as nomination by open primaries, the short ballot, the abolition of the ward system, direct legislation, the recall, the merit system of appointment and promotion, publicity in all municipal business, modern methods of city accounting, and the concentration of responsibility for the improper expenditures of public money. As a protest against the old municipal régime it has been very effective; as a policy it has, despite its incidental shortcomings, fulfilled much of what its supporters claimed for it.

MUNICIPAL HOME RULE IN CALIFORNIA

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IT CAME from Missouri. The convention which in 1879 drafted the present constitution of California was much influenced throughout its deliberations by the Missouri constitution completed but four years earlier.[2] It was only natural, therefore, that the San Francisco delegation should have seen hope for the municipal independence of their city in the unique provisions of the Missouri document permitting cities of over 100,000 inhabitants to prepare through boards of freeholders charters for their peculiar needs.[3] The discussion which became quite heated upon this somewhat original proposition led to very serious modifications of the Missouri plan. The fear that San Francisco, the only city of 100,000 inhabitants would become practically independent of the state suggested the provision that the charters should be subject to approval by the legislature, while, at the same time, the aversion to special legislation, strong in the hearts of these constitution-makers, dictated that this approval must be of the charter as a whole without amendment. The provision that charters must provide for a mayor and a two-chamber council which had seemed wise to the Missourians, appealed not at all to the assembled wise men of California, and they omitted it. The number of freeholders to be chosen to draft the charter were thirteen in Missouri, but the Golden State, like some hotels, declined to court misfortune by including this unlucky number in its constitution. The quota of freeholders was therefore fixed at fifteen. With these changes the Missouri plan became engrafted on the fundamental law of California.[4]

Of course at the time of their adoption these provisions were intended for the sole benefit of the two great cities of St. Louis and San Francisco. The former had already adopted a charter by the new method before the California convention began its operations.[5] It took San Francisco, however, twenty years and several abortive efforts to actually secure a freeholder charter, which went into effect on January 1, 1900.[6]

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[2] *Debates and Proceedings of the Constitutional Convention of the State of California*, remarks of Mr. Hager, p. 1059.

[3] Missouri constitution, art. ix, sec. 16. et seq. Thorpe, *American Charters, Constitutions and Organic Laws*, pp. 2256–2258; also *Debates and Proceedings*, op. cit., p. 105, et seq.

[4] Constitution of California, art. xi, sec. 8, original section. See E. F. Treadwell, *The Constitution of the State of California* (ed. 1911), p. 353.

[5] Horace E. Deming, *Government of American Cities*, p. 93.

In the meantime, California had traveled far beyond Missouri on the way to municipal home rule. In 1887 the constitution was amended so as to extend the privilege of framing their own charters to cities of over 10,000 inhabitants.[7] Immediately four of the larger cities of the state, Los Angeles, Oakland, Stockton and San Diego, elected boards of freeholders and submitted charters which were approved by the legislature in 1889.[8] The popularity of homemade charters brought about the inclusion of cities above 3500 population in the favored class.[9] The original clause had provided, in imitation of Missouri, that the charter might be amended at intervals of not less than two years by proposals submitted by the legislative authority of the city to the qualified electors thereof, and subsequently to the senate and assembly of the state.[10] This portion of the section was amended in 1902 by making mandatory the submission of such proposals whenever 15 per cent of the qualified electors joined in petitioning the legislative authority to so submit them.[11] The courts had held that the right to make a freeholder charter was not a "continuing right" and that once exercised all changes must be by way of amendment to this original document.[12] Numerous amendments to charters were ratified by the legislature in the sessions of 1903 and 1905, and it became obvious that it might greatly serve the interest of simplicity and consistency to permit a city to frame a charter de novo. The legislature of 1905 therefore submitted to the people an amendment authorizing cities of over 3500 population not only to frame a charter, but having framed such a charter to "frame a new one."[13] The reform legislature of 1911 submitted the last and most important of all the amendments.

The present section of the constitution provides that the initial steps for the election of a board of freeholders may be taken either by the council directly or upon the petition of 15 per cent of the qualified electors computed on the total vote for governor at the last election. The freeholders now have one hundred and twenty days in which to complete their work (originally the period allowed was one hundred and later ninety days). Ample provision is made for the publication of the charter in papers of general circulation, within fifteen days after it has been filed by the freeholders with the city clerk. Not less than twenty nor more than forty days after the completion of publication it is submitted to the people at a special election, and if approved by a majority of those voting, it is ready for presentation to the legislature at its next regular or special session. Legislative approval being forthcoming, as it always is, one copy certified by the mayor and authenticated by the seal of the city, is deposited with the secretary of state and one copy, after being recorded in the office of the county recorder, in the archives of the city. The process of amendment is similar except that the services of freeholders are not required.[14]

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[6] E. F. Treadwell, *Charter of San Francisco Annotated.*

[7] Amendment of 1887, Treadwell, *Constitution of California*, p. 350.

[8] Statutes of 1889, pp. 415, 513, 577, 643.

[9] Amendment of 1892, Treadwell, *Constitution of California*, p. 349.

[10] Original section, Treadwell, *Constitution of California*, p. 353.

[11] Amendment of 1902, Treadwell, *Constitution of California*, p. 347.

[12] *Blanchard vs. Hartwell*, 131 Cal., 263.

[13] Amendment of 1906, Treadwell, *Constitution of California*, p. 345.

In all, thirty-one cities have availed themselves of the opportunity of making their own form of government.[15] They include all the considerable urban communities of California and many of the smaller ones. The census of 1910 shows that there are fifty-two incorporated places in California with a population of 3500 or over. Of these, twenty-three had a population of less than 3500 in 1900. Six out of the twenty-three having at various times passed the 3500 mark have adopted freeholder charters. Among the cities which have for ten years or more possessed the requisite number of inhabitants only Bakersfield (12,727), Santa Ana (8429), Redlands (10,449) and Santa Clara (4348) have not now freeholder charters.[16] Several cities have adopted two charters and amendments have been frequent, Los Angeles leading with amendments every two years since 1903. Sometimes these amendments, as in the case of those proposed by San Francisco in 1910 and Los Angeles in 1903, are very extensive, amounting practically to new charters.

It is thus obvious that the freeholder charter privilege has been largely employed by California cities. That it has been used on the whole wisely, no one can deny. Our cities are on the average well governed as compared with the country at large and where deficiencies exist they are due not so much to the frame of government as to political conditions which would pervert any charter no matter how excellent. At any rate the people are contented in the knowledge that full control of the machinery of government is in their hands. Our boards of freeholders have not been bold enough to "cast off their moorings from the habitable past." Until the last four years they followed pretty closely in the beaten track of municipal development. They have not revolutionized municipal government, being unable, perhaps happily, to divorce themselves from custom and tradition. On the whole, however, and especially of recent years, they have used their power progressively. The San Francisco charter of 1899 applied imperfectly the principle of the initiative and referendum.[17] The Fresno charter of 1901 provided for the initiation of ordinances by a petition of 15 per cent of the voters.[18] The Los Angeles charter amendments of 1903 introduced the "recall" to American municipal affairs and the language of that charter in providing for that trilogy of progressivism, the initiative, referendum and recall, has been copied verbatim into great numbers of recent charters.[19] The commission form of government was taken up in 1909 by Berkeley[20] and San Diego,[21] the former the most advanced features, the non-partisan nomination and majority election, of the Des Moines plan were copied with progressive modifications. The Berkeley election plan permits a majority on the first ballot to elect without further contest.[22] At the regular session of 1911 the legislature ratified eight charters of which six, including that of Oakland, the largest city in the country to adopt the commission plan so far, provided for that form of government.[23] At the same time San Francisco secured amendments which give her practically the terms of the Berkeley charter as to the initiative, referendum and recall and non-partisan nominations and elections.[24] A large part of the credit for the overthrow of the corrupt political forces of San Francisco in the fall of 1911 is ascribable to these improvements—self-made—in its charter. At the special session of 1911 two more charters, both of the commission variety, were presented to the legislature, from Stockton and Sacramento.[25] The latter provides for the shortest of ballots, one only of the five commissioners being chosen each year. There, too, the majority non-partisan election system helped to down a few weeks ago, one of the worst and ablest rings in California. I think it is safe to conclude that while cities under the freeholder system do not adopt certain reforms like commission government so speedily as if the legislature presented them ready made for simple adoption, they are by no means backward in working such reforms out for themselves. A new pattern or cut in ready-made clothing will get on more backs in shorter space than the same style in custom garments. It is, however, the latter which fit the eccentricities of figure and provide the full and scant in their proper locations. We have enjoyed all the advantages of special legislation without its evils. We have charters which meet each peculiar need and they are in the main as progressive as we might hope for.

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[14] Constitution of California, art. xi, sec. 8. As amended by amendment approved October 10, 1911.

[15] Statutes 1889 to 1911 (Extra Session).

[16] Freeholder charters have been ratified by the legislature as follows: 1889—Los Angeles, Oakland, Stockton, San Diego; 1893—Grass Valley, Napa, Sacramento; 1895—Berkeley, Eureka; 1897—San Jose; 1899—San Francisco, Santa Barbara, Vallejo; 1901—Fresno, Pasadena; 1903—Salinas, Santa Rosa, Watsonville; 1905—San Bernardino, Santa Rosa; 1907—Alameda, Long Beach, Riverside, Santa Cruz, Santa Monica; 1909—Berkeley, Palo Alto, Richmond; 1911—Vallejo, Santa Cruz, San Luis Obispo, Pomona, Petaluma, Oakland, Monterey, Modesto, Stockton and Sacramento.

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[17] E. F. Treadwell, *Charter of San Francisco*, art. ii, ch. 1, pars. 20, 21, 22.

[18] Laws of 1901, p. 832, §277.

[19] Laws of 1903, pp. 572-575.

[20] Laws of 1909, p. 1208.

[21] Laws of 1909, p. 1137.

[22] Berkeley charter, art. vi.

[23] Laws of 1911.

[24] Laws of 1911, pp. 1670-1685.

[25] Laws of 1911 (Extra Session), 254, 305.

When, however, we say that we have good and suitable charters under the freeholder system, we know that we have not told the whole story for any person cognizant of the usual relations of state and city. Cities may have the right to draft their own charters and amend them at will, but if the legislature may by its enactments override charter provisions, the city's liberty is merely nominal. The evil from which California cities suffered prior to 1879 was special legislation. Not only were all charters specially granted but the statute books were crowded with special acts for particular cities. For the purpose of illustration let us take the single city of San Francisco and see what legislation was passed for it in a year selected at random, say 1869. In that year[26] fifty special acts were passed for San Francisco, many of them containing numerous items. Only two were ostensibly charter amendments, the remainder being merely special acts authorizing or providing such important things as the appointment of deputies in the assessors office,[27] the employment of one janitor at $75 per month,[28] the opening and establishment of a street by name,[29] the appropriation of $5000 to the Sisters of Mercy for services in a smallpox epidemic.[30] That these are not extreme examples of legislative interference may perhaps be seen from the following pious title, "An Act to authorize the Mayor and Common Council of the City of Marysville to close up Virgin Alley between Seventh and Eighth Streets."[31] Altogether these special acts made a state of confusion in the legal basis of power of every city which even a Philadelphia lawyer would have hesitated to precipitate in the service of the richest of corporations. These measures were generally of local origin. Indeed, legislative interference with city government is practically always of local origin. I was present in the New York assembly when the famous ripper bill depriving Ogdensburg of its charter to oust a Democratic administration was put through. There was no doubt of its local authorship. The difficulty with special legislation is not the *place* from which but the *persons* from whom it emanates. Sometimes it comes from the people or representative citizens, but more frequently from disgruntled minorities and sinister groupings of the ill-disposed.

So grave an evil had this become by 1879 that the members of the constitutional convention set their faces sternly against it. They prohibited all local and special laws in thirty-three enumerated cases embracing practically every subject on which such legislation might be framed.[32] They further provided that corporations for municipal purposes should not be created by special laws, but by general laws according to a scheme of classification to be provided by the legislature.[33] The section in question closed with these words: "and cities and towns heretofore or hereafter organized, and all charters thereof framed or adopted by authority of this constitution, shall be subject to and controlled by general laws.[34] By this means such control as the legislature might exercise over any city, whether possessing a freeholder charter or not, must be by general law.

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[26] Laws of 1869.

[27] Laws of 1869, ch. 22.

[28] Laws of 1869, ch. 174.

[29] Laws of 1869, ch. 361.

[30] Laws of 1869, ch. 171.

[31] Laws of 1869, ch. 155.

[32] Constitution of California, art. iv, sec. 25.

As is well known, the attitude of the courts has been so liberal that a legislature may exercise a good deal of local power through laws general, at least in form. California was no exception to this rule. In the leading case of *Brooks vs. Hyde*,[35] Sanderson J. said: "The word 'general' comes from genus, and relates to a whole genus, or kind, or in other words, to a whole class or order. Hence a law which affects a class of persons or things less than all, may be a general law." Under this ruling, although the opportunity for interference with local independence by statute was greatly reduced, it was by no means abolished. This led to the adoption of a constitutional amendment in November, 1896, inserting the word "except in municipal affairs" immediately before the words "shall be subject to and controlled by general laws." The phrase "except in municipal affairs" has closed the last aperture through which the legislature might even covertly, and by indirection, deprive a city of its liberty. It makes the California city the best protected in the United States against the corrupt or misguided efforts of outsiders to save her from herself.

The meaning of the term "municipal affairs" is no longer doubtful. In the first place it refers to the internal business affairs of the city and not to its external relations. For instance, the method of conducting charter elections,[36] and the procedure for the annexation of contiguous territory,[37] are not "municipal affairs." Neither are the trial and punishment of offenses defined by the laws of the state[38] and the power of the state to pass laws for the protection of the health and safety of the people is not diminished. On the other hand an act to require ordinances and resolutions passed by the city council to be presented to the chief executive officer of the municipality, for his approval, is invalid as against a contrary charter provision;[39] while such matters as the compensation of municipal officers,[40] the management of hospitals and almshouses,[41] imposing license taxes for revenue,[42] and opening streets,[43] have been held to be municipal affairs.

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[33] Constitution of California, art. xi, sec. 6.

[34] Constitution of California, art. xi, sec. 6; original section. See Treadwell, *Constitution of California*, p. 310.

[35] 37 Cal. 366, 376.

[36] *Fragley vs. Phelan*, 126 Cal. 383.

[37] *People vs. Oakland*, 123 Cal. 598.

[38] *Robert vs. Police Court.*

[39] *Morton vs. Broderick*, 118 Cal. 487.

[40] *Popper vs. Broderick*, 123 Cal. 456; *Elder vs. McDougald*, 145 Cal. 740.

[41] *Weaver vs. Reddy*, 139 Cal. 430.

[42] 143 Cal. 553, 558, 564; 141 Cal. 204.

[43] *Byrne vs. Drain*, 127 Cal. 663.

A charter board of health may supplant a board provided by a state law, although this does not mean that a central state board of health may not have jurisdiction within a city.[44] It has even been held that bonds voted under the park and boulevard act, but not sold at the time a charter containing different provisions on this subject takes effect, cannot be issued.[45]

The net result of all these measures for protecting city independence against the legislative activity of the state is perhaps best indicated by an analysis of the legislation of 1911. This was the most prolific legislature which ever sat in California. There were, however, not over ten laws directly affecting cities other than those organized under general laws. Among these were the tenement house act,[46] a clear and very proper exercise of the police power of the state, and an act requiring the compilation and publication by the comptroller of the financial transactions of all counties and municipalities,[47] a most salutary measure of the right kind of state control. Several measures were indeed passed, some half dozen in all, at the instance of the city of San Francisco. Some of them were legalizing bond issues which have received a two-thirds popular vote;[48] providing for the removal of remains from cemeteries.[49] and for the opening of streets through cemeteries,[50] amending the civil code relative to the use of the same tracks by two lines of street railway;[51] and an act making the use of a public service system by a municipality a more necessary use than the use of the same system by a private corporation.[52] There is certainly no objection to these measures in form or in principle. The city simply comes and asks changes in general laws to relieve it from some disability or to secure some advantage, which relief or advantage sound policy may well demand should be granted to all cities. Most legislation originates with localities or individuals in this way and must inevitably do so. The curse of legislative interference is a thing of the past in California.

There remains only to speak briefly of two more provisions of the constitution. One of these was a most unfortunately inconsistent limitation on the liberty of municipalities. Section 19 of article xi until this year provided that in a city where there were no public works owned by the city for supplying water or artificial light, any person or corporation might lay wires or pipes in the streets of the city upon the simple conditions that the city might lay down rules as to damages and regulate rates.[53] This provision destroyed the effect of the system of competitive bidding for franchises inaugurated by the San Francisco charter of 1899 and was generally harmful.[54] An amendment of 1911 substituted for it this language, "Persons or corporations may establish and operate works for supplying the inhabitants with such services upon such conditions and under such regulations as the municipality may prescribe under its organic law . . . ." At the same time the right of a municipality to own and operate its own utilities was made clear and certain.[55] The other is a board grant of power, unusual in the generality of its terms, to cities and counties. Section 11 of article xi provides, "Any county, city, town, or township may make and enforce within its limits all such local, police, sanitary, and other regulations as are not in conflict with general laws." This approaches in magnitude those general grants of power which are so often the theme of the admirers of European city governments. It is the capstone of our system of municipal independence.

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[44] *People vs. Williamson*, 135 Cal. 415.

[45] *Fritz vs. San Francisco*, 132 Cal. 373.

[46] Lawsof 1911, ch. 432.

[47] Laws of 1911, ch. 550.

[48] Laws of 1911, ch. 234.

[49] Laws of 1911, ch. 577.

[50] Laws of 1911, ch. 578.

[51] Laws of 1911, ch. 580.

[52] Laws of 1911, ch. 358.

[53] Art. xi, sec. 19, original section Treadwell, *Constitution of California*, p. 404.

To sum up the privileges of California cities: (1) They may make their own charters subject to a formal submission to the legislature which always approves them; (2) These charters prevail over general laws, even, in all matters affecting the internal affairs of the municipality; (3) Special or local laws are forbidden; (4) They may adopt any kind of ordinance or regulation even outside the field of strictly "municipal affairs" not inconsistent with the general laws of the state. Our cities are the freest on earth. Perhaps indeed they are too free because they are scarcely at all subject to those modes of administrative supervision which work out so well in other countries. In this respect, however, they are gradually losing their isolate position. To show how much in dollars and cents we have gained by this system would be impossible. It is even hard to estimate our gains in popular satisfaction and in the convenience of not being obliged to persuade a third party to minor changes in our government. It is not unlikely that our greatest benefit has come from the tricks that have not been played, the deceptions which have not been practised, the graft that has "died a'borning." No one can measure exactly such advantages but we all know that we enjoy them and that they are great.

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[54] Charter of San Francisco, art. ii, ch. ii, sec. 7.

[55] Constitution of California, art. xi, sec. 19.

MUNICIPAL FINANCES AND TAXATION

BY EDWARD L. HEYDECKER[1]

New York City

TO MOST minds, the phrase "municipal finances" is the equivalent of municipal expenditures. Such attention as municipal finances have received from students of municipal affairs, has been directed chiefly to the making of the budget, the control of the budget, public accounting and the general proposition of getting a dollar's worth of goods or services for the expenditure of each one hundred cents.

All this is excellent and has been productive of great good; it has invited and developed a close scrutiny of municipal activities, their relative cost and the consideration of the varied fields into which municipal activities have extended or should extend. But in the main it has left untouched the question of how the municipal revenues shall be raised.

Those who are eager to see municipal activities extended to new fields or to see a broader occupation of fields already partially occupied, have often deplored the emptiness of the municipal treasury, but if they have given any real thought to the question of revenue have usually occupied themselves in searching around for some new tax by which to add to the balance in the city treasury, or some way to extend the limit on bonded debts. Existing methods of taxation have been generally accepted, without any real scrutiny of their incidence, their productiveness, either actual or potential, or their equity as between taxpayers. The general attitude has been that taxes are inevitable, a nuisance and a burden. Payment has been accompanied by a feeling of unfairness and inequality, as though the tax was something taken by superior might from the citizen rather than an obligation fairly due to the public treasury for value received.

Municipal revenue is very largely made up of the proceeds of taxes levied on real estate, that is, on land and the improvements thereon. Of late years the proportion of revenue coming from a direct tax on real property has increased until in many cities, particularly in our northern and western states, this constitutes almost the only source of municipal revenue from direct taxation. At the same time we find an earnest effort being made to provide state revenue from other sources, so that the direct tax on real estate may be left to the municipality. These two efforts are reciprocal and each has helped the other.

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[1] Assistant tax commissioner of New York City since 1907; secretary of New York State Conferences on Taxation, Utica, 1911, and Buffalo, 1912, and chairman of the committee on real estate assessment of the National Tax Association.

This paper was read at the Los Angeles meeting of the National Municipal League.

Thus in the city of New York 96 per cent of the direct taxes are paid by the owners of real property and only 4 per cent by the owners of taxable personal property assessed under the general property tax. For many years the state of New York has been reducing its direct taxes on the property of the individual taxpayers and deriving its income more and more from the so-called indirect or special taxes. For several years prior to 1911 the state of New York levied no direct state tax and would today be without such a tax, were it not for the necessity of meeting the charges for interest and sinking fund on its rapidly increasing state debt for canals and roads. And what is true of the city and state of New York is true, to a great or less extent, in many of the other states and larger cities. Of course, many of the states are hampered or even prevented from going far in this direction because of their iron-clad constitutional requirements for the taxation of all property by a uniform rule. California is one of the latest states to win its freedom from this cramping constitutional restraint on the evolution of a progressive and equitable tax system.

While thus the tendency is to put the main burden of local taxation upon real estate, this is justifiable, since the benefit from the proper expenditure of municipal revenue is reflected promptly in real estate values. These expenditures do not add to the value of any particular building but only to the value of sites, but they do cause a much greater demand for buildings and in consequence the number is increased. These site values mount with each dollar properly expended in any civic betterment or civic activity, and grow much more rapidly than the expenditures for such purposes. An outlay of a million dollars for highways may easily add ten or twenty millions to the assessment rolls by bringing land which formerly was inaccessible or for some reason unusable, into the circle of municipal activity and life.

As a general rule, each piece of taxable property or person assessed for taxation contributes to three tax budgets, namely, to the state, to the county and to the municipality, for we can properly classify school taxes and all taxes for special municipal purposes as really constituting part of the municipal budget. State and county taxes are rarely levied on separate assessments but are imposed as super-taxes on the municipal assessment. This being so, the vexatious question of equalization arises.

Nothing has done more to produce inequality of assessment and, what is far worse, to produce acquiescence among taxpayers in under-assessment of property, than the attempt to levy state direct taxes at a uniform rate on the basis of local assessment rolls. Hence the movement in the several states to provide a separate source or sources of revenue for the state, is really far more important as a means of bringing about equitable assessment as between taxpayers in a municipality than as a relief from direct contributions to the state treasury.

If some way can be found to avoid the necessity for equalization for county purposes, this good work will be carried still further. Time does not permit the discussion in this paper of proposals made to that end. Foremost among these is the plan to raise state and county revenue by an apportionment of the sum required upon local budgets instead of upon local valuations.

If the assessor can be free to make his assessment solely as a basis for a municipal tax rate and not to serve also as a part of a larger basis for the imposing of a county or state tax rate, much will have been gained. In that event, nearly all of the inducement to under-valuation will disappear. But even if the local assessors must continue to realize that their assessment is to be subject to a super-tax for county or state purposes, still the need of assessment at full value is apparent. For an equitable assessment can not be made except at full value and unless the assessment is at full value the individual taxpayer has no real protection against over-assessment.

Suppose that the law provides, or the practice among assessors is, to assess at 60 per cent. Does not that presuppose the determination first at 100 per cent in order to arrive at 60 per cent? Why not then enter the 100 per cent upon the assessment roll, and reduce the tax rate correspondingly? Or again suppose that one piece of property has been assessed at 50 per cent and another adjoining one at 70 per cent, while the general ratio is 60 per cent. How is the fact to be determined and how will it be apparent? The 70 per cent owner will be practically without remedy, for he will still be assessed at less than full value and it will be difficult for him to prove a general ratio of 60 per cent and a particular ratio of 70 per cent in his case. But suppose that assessments are made at full value and that he is assessed 120 per cent. How easily he can then prove that he has been assessed for more than the property can sell for. And how conspicuous on the other hand, will be an assessment at 80 per cent while all the neighbors are at 100 per cent.

Yet it is the fact that most taxpayers acquiesce in an assessment at some percentage of full value and even regard it as necessary and as the only way to protect themselves from paying more than their share of county and state taxes, overlooking the fact that every other tax district is in the same scramble to evade in the same manner.

It seems that although the direct tax for state purposes is theoretically correct, the practical disadvantages are such that the easiest way at present out of the difficulties surrounding it is to provide separate sources of revenue for the state and to leave real property to the municipality as its separate source of revenue.

If, however, we have an assessment at full value, will we then have a sufficient basis to provide an adequate municipal revenue without too high a tax rate?

The statistics of land and improvement values in cities are inadequate and not very reliable, but we can be sure of certain facts. As cities are improved and population grows, land values grow still faster and the value of buildings certainly keeps pace with the population.

In the city of New York the assessment rolls show for each separately assessed parcel, the value of the land without the improvements and also the value of the land with all the improvements, if any, thereon. Hence it is easy to ascertain the value of all privately-owned, taxable land and all privately-owned, taxable improvements.

The records show that the land value per capita in New York City is $915 and the improvement value per capita is $533. These figures have not materially varied through a number of years. Assessments in the city of New York are as near full value as the utmost diligence and the exercise of wise discretion on the part of the assessors can make them. I believe that they average 97 per cent or better, of fair selling value. As the population increases, year by year, these per capita figures hold steady and true. Hence it appears as a general statement that every child born in New York City adds $900 to the value of the site of New York and every person who permanently locates there adds an equal amount; and that to house these babies and newcomers requires an expenditure in new buildings of over $500 per capita; and the privilege of supplying each baby with transportation facilities, with electric light, gas and telephone service, is immediately capitalized at $135 as indicated by our assessments of these special franchises.

The selling value of land is an untaxed value. This is a statement on which economists of all schools agree. It means that the selling value of land is determined by capitalizing at the current rate of interest the net annual ground rent. Thus a net annual ground rent of $500 will mean that the land will sell for $10,000; or to put it the other way, that a piece of land is worth $10,000 because it is commonly believed that it will yield $500 per annum net. But we can not determine the net annual rent until the taxes have been paid. In the case supposed, that of a lot selling for $10,000, or worth $10,000 as we say, what we mean is that its actual or potential rent is $500 plus the taxes. If the tax rate is 2 per cent then the taxes will be $200, which added to the $500 will mean a gross rental of $700. Of this gross rental of $700 the city will take $200 in taxes, leaving $500 to the owner. And the owner and the public with him show their appreciation of this fact, by declaring that the land is worth $10,000, that is to say, $500—the net rent—capitalized at 5 per cent.

But neither the owner nor the assessor attempts to capitalize the $700 gross rent. Yet if the tax rate were reduced to 1 per cent so that only $100 would be required in taxes, this would leave $600 for the owner and he would quickly ask $12,000 for his land.

Now the bearing of this on the question of municipal finance and taxation lies in the fact that in every growing city, land values are steadily rising and that an increase in the tax rate, if it be slight and gradual, is more than likely to be offset, or more than offset, by the increase in land value, so that the owner even after paying the increased tax, still has an undiminished net return from his land and hence has not suffered any diminution in his selling value. It is true of course that every increase in the tax rate will deprive him of what would otherwise be a profit, but on the other hand, the value of his land is due to the presence and enterprise of the population and their municipal expenditures.

In the case of buildings it is different. Buildings do not increase in value by any municipal expenditure, because the value of a building is never more than the cost of its replacement. Again buildings deteriorate rapidly and constantly require repairs. Hence a fixed or increasing tax rate to the owner of a building, deteriorating in value, is often a hardship. And the utmost care should be exercised by assessors to make proper allowance for depreciation in value of buildings.

Turning now to the sources of municipal revenue, other than direct taxes on real estate, in this paper I shall exclude from consideration all reference to franchise taxes or to special assessments for local improvements. This leaves only the attempt to assess personal property under the general property tax, and so-called business taxes or licenses on occupations or on various phases of business or chattels.

I do not deem it necessary to enter here into any discussion of the futility of attempting to assess personal property by any uniform rule or at any general rate. That has been done so often and so effectively that in only one state in the Union, Ohio, can any one be found in office, who even pretends to uphold or defend the system. Yet despite this general agreement as to the futility and inequity (or iniquity) of the personal tax, the assessors in the cities of nearly every state have fastened upon them, by constitutional requirement or statutory provision, the duty of attempting to assess personal property of all kinds, merchandise, chattels, loans, money and credits. Where they make any serious attempt to perform their sworn duty, there are loud complaints of the unfair burdens placed upon business. Where they ignore the constitution or the law and make no assessments or small assessments, they are denounced for favoritism or corruption. And where as in many cases, they boldly and openly make bargains with new enterprises for total exemptions or small assessment, they breed a disregard for the law which is most dangerous and demoralizing, and is also unfair to businesses already established.

All attempts to assess personal property for local taxation should be abolished, if only because of the apparent and acknowledged evils which attend the system, evils far greater in extent than can be offset by the small revenue resulting from even the most rigid enforcement.

But another reason exists for its abolition. Every city is striving to attract business and rejoices in the establishment of each new industry and in each increase of business in its borders as shown by trade statistics. Yet every tax on personal property, every license paid to engage in business, every charge on any phase of business, is a reason why some particular business which otherwise would be attracted to a city, should keep away from it. And that such business does often keep away from such a city is a fact well known to all and many instances could be cited. Yet every business attracted to a city brings in workers, increases the pay rolls and adds to its land values and its building values, and in that way more than makes up for the small revenue lost by abolishing personal property taxes and business licenses.

The foregoing has concerned itself with the sources of city revenue. There remains the large question of the administration of the assessor's office, or the question of efficiency in assessment. Since the main burden of local taxation rests on real estate and must rest there and since the assessment of real estate is becoming more and more a direct municipal question through the tendency to set it aside as a separate source of revenue to the municipality, the importance of improved assessment methods increases.

Despite the very general feeling that assessment is a matter of guess work on the part of the assessor, we know that it can be made precise, scientific and accurate.

In such work, as in all branches of municipal work, the first requisite is skill and experience. The assessor should give his whole time to the duties of his office, he should be continued in office as long as his work is satisfactory, so that his growing skill and experience may be retained for the service of the municipality. New appointments to the assessing staff should be made from selected lists of qualified men. And the assessor and all his assistants should be paid salaries of adequate amount to attract and keep men of intelligence and integrity.

The records of the office should be so kept as to show to the public and particularly to the complaining taxpayer, all the processes by which the assessment has been worked out by the assessor. Publicity is one of the best cures for unequal assessments. It is very difficult to interest the average citizen in tax reports or in a study of assessment figures. But I maintain that the compulsion on the assessor to arrange his records in such a way that all the details of each assessment can be traced, is of inestimable benefit to him, even if no taxpayer ever examines his books. It will serve both as a check to the assessor against inadvertence or mistake and as a safeguard against the temptation to oblige a friend by a low assessment or for any other reason to make a small assessment.

To the end then that all the details of the process may be shown, the separate statement on the roll of the value of the land and the value of improvements is necessary. This at once checks inequality in the assessment of the land, because by this method two lots of equal size, side by side, must show the same assessed value.

If a unit of value of the land be adopted, it will provide another means of checking all land assessments. The best unit of land value in cities is the value of one foot front of a standard depth, say 100 or 150 feet. Square foot value can never be satisfactorily used, because it is the frontage on a street or other open space which determines the value of a lot, and square foot value ignores this primary rule.

A scale of value for varying depths of lots should be established. Different cities have different scales. No one scale can be said to be necessarily correct, but the main thing is to have a scale or percentage table, which is generally accepted and used in the buying and selling of land. It is noticed however that the percentage tables in use in the cities which have developed the most scientific work show only slight variations, one from the other, so that we can say that there is pretty general accord as to the relative values of long and short lots.

Tax maps are an essential to good work. A tax map is the tool most needed by an assessor, yet in only a comparatively few cities are maps to be found which are adequate for this purpose. How an assessor can be expected to produce an equitable assessment without a good tax map, kept up to date, is beyond me. Where criticism is justly made of careless or indifferent work by an assessor, it will usually be found that he is either without a map or has to work with one which is old, erroneous or lacking in some important particular.

The presence of a good tax map will not only protect the assessor and assist the taxpayer, but it will also permit the making of a land value map. By this I mean an outline map of the city, showing the blocks or squares, on each side of which may be entered the unit of land value along the street. By means of such a land value map the relative values of streets may be shown, one with another, the high points and the low points and the gradations of value between them, through street after street, from one end of the city to the other. Such maps are prepared and published annually in New York.

In the matter of buildings a set of rules for the value of new buildings of certain definite types and sizes may be prepared, from which by a little adaptation, and a proper allowance for depreciation, the value of each building can be deduced with relative accuracy, at least, as between buildings of similar types. By these means the assessment of land and buildings can be reduced almost to scientific precision. To illustrate what I mean let me say that I have on more than one occasion, been visited by an indignant taxpayer, who demanded to know how we arrived at such a high assessment on his property. Without permitting him to tell me more than the street and number of the house, the size of his lot, the size and material of the house, I have been able, by turning first to the land value map, to ascertain the value of the land and by turning to the table of buildings values to ascertain the value of the house. By adding the two together I have then been able to tell him what his assessment should be and have witnessed his amazement when he showed me his tax bill, disclosing an assessment in substantial accord with my figures.

I do not mean, however, to intimate that an assessment can be made in the office by simply consulting a land value map and a book of building values, because both the land value map and the book of building values, can only be prepared by trained and skillful assessors as the result of their work in the field. These maps and tables summarize what they have learned by diligent study and inquiry up and down the city.

Furthermore when the actual assessment figures are placed upon the roll, in many cases special allowances must be made for local conditions, such as in the case of land, rock or swampy ground, bad grade or a sharp change in use to which the land is put. There may be a "twilight zone" between residences and factories, where values are very uncertain.

The value of land at the corners of streets presents many difficulties. Every city assessor is continually wrestling with this problem and various attempts at a uniform mathematical rule to cover these cases have been made. But no rule has yet been devised sufficiently universal in application to be entitled to general acceptance as a basic principle. We must still rely on the discretion of the assessor applied to the particular corner problem, aided by the methods of appraisal in actual use by real estate men in their city, which methods may slowly be developed into rules for standard corners.

In the case of buildings, any building may present a special problem, calling for special consideration and allowance. In a rapidly growing city a large proportion of the buildings at any given time are obsolete because unsuited to the changed conditions of the neighborhood in which they are located. Buildings good enough to last one hundred years are frequently worthless as plainly appears when the property is sold and the building immediately torn down to make way for a different type. Because land generally rises in value and buildings always decline in value, buildings are usually over-assessed. When the fact is known the danger is less, but great care must be exercised not to over-assess buildings.

To sum up then: Aside from franchise taxes and assessments for local improvements, the main source of revenue for the city budget is taxation of real property. Every effort should be made to free this kind of property from taxation by other jurisdictions, such as the state and the county and reserve it wholly for the municipality.

Real estate is the logical subject of local taxation because the expenditures of the budget are immediately reflected in the increased value of real estate and because the great value of the site of the city is due to the presence and enterprise of the city population, increasing proportionately with the increase in population. With full value assessments a moderate tax rate will produce an amount to satisfy a budget made up economically and yet with due regard to the increasing municipal activities.

Taxes on personal property and all business licenses tend to drive business away or to interfere with its growth and hence tend to retard the city.

The main burden of local taxation now rests upon real estate and the tendency is rather to increase than to diminish this proportion. Hence the use of improved methods of assessment is imperative. Accurate, scientific methods are possible and should be introduced, to aid the assessor and protect the taxpayer.

THE ACTUAL WORKINGS OF THE INITIATIVE, REFERENDUM AND RECALL[1]

BY DR. JOHN R. HAYNES

Los Angeles

TO the average Californian, discussion of the advisability of the measures of direct legislation seems foolishly superfluous. With us they have long since passed the experimental stage and are regarded as settled steps in the evolution of government. The right of direct legislation is as much a matter of course with us as the right to choose representatives to legislate for us. We are rather apt, therefore, to smile with benign pity upon our friends of the "effete east," who still look with apprehension upon these instruments of self-government, notwithstanding the fact that in the heart of old New England they have been practiced successfully ever since the coming of the *Mayflower*.

Nevertheless it is no accident that these measures have received their freest and fullest development in the west, and especially in the extreme west—the Pacific coast. It is in keeping with the trend of all history. Although the star of empire has always moved from east to west, the star of liberty and democracy has always moved from west to east. This is logical, for there is inherently little difference in the capacity of individuals of one class as compared with those of other classes; environment determining the result in the main. The western man, because of the virile blood of pioneers in his veins, because of the greater economic opportunities offered him in a new country, and because of the inspiration he receives from the very immensity of his natural surroundings—the boundless plains and the towering mountains—has that faith in himself and in his fellows, which forms the basis of all democracy. For some, or all, of these reasons, we find Asia receiving the light of democracy from Europe, Europe from America, and the Atlantic coast from the Pacific coast.

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[1] Dr. John Randolph Haynes has for many years been a leader of the movement for direct legislation in California and on the western coast. He was the first to agitate the question of the adoption of the initiative, referendum and recall for Los Angeles and in 1900 drafted the provisions dealing with these subjects which three years later became a part of the city's charter. The incorporation of the recall and the first application of the principle in fact into the actual machinery of government was especially his individual work. On this account he is known as the "Father of the Recall." At the time of its adoption Los Angeles was the only community in the world where a majority of electors had at any time the power to discharge unsatisfactory officials. Since that time the recall has been adopted by nearly 200 American cities and by three states. Dr. Haynes has been a member of the Los Angeles Civil Service Commission and has served on the freeholders' and revision boards to frame and revise the city's charter. Charles D. Willard, for many years a member of the Executive Committee of the National Municipal League, thus speaks of Dr. Haynes: "There is in Dr. John R. Haynes some of the material of which great law makers are made, also something of the hero and martyr, also a bit of the prophet and the seer, and a lot of the keen vigorous man of affairs."—EDITOR.

I am to give today, however, not a philosophical discussion of democracy but an account of the actual workings of the initiative, referendum and recall. As the first political community in the world, so far as can be learned, to use the recall, and as one of the earliest and most active of the cities to adopt and use the initiative and referendum, your program committee has thought that the experience of Los Angeles with these measures may be of interest.

Where facts and theories conflict, theories must give way. Why need we use the subjunctive mode in discussing these provisions of direct government, speculating as to what *might* happen, when the experience of Los Angeles and other cities, states and nations enables us to use the indicative mode of expression, stating that under their operation such and such things *have* happened. Opponents of the initiative, referendum and recall, without specifying instances where these provisions *have* failed, contend that they *would*, if adopted, cause continual disturbance, hamper honest officials, injure business, prove expensive to operate, result in hasty and unwise legislation, mean a government by the minority instead of by the majority, and, in short, be a government by the mob.

What has been the experience of Los Angeles and of other communities?

Do these provisions become disturbing factors in social and industrial life? The experience of Los Angeles shows that private citizens there do take a more active part in the affairs of the city than is the case in most communities; but we do not regard this as an evil. It is the lack of this participation by the private citizen in public affairs that has been the source of most of the evils which have characterized American municipal government. The supposition, however, that these provisions result in continual strife and bickering is wide of the mark. In the something over nine years of use in Los Angeles, there have been filed in all under these provisions, 23 petitions. Of these 17 proved sufficient in number of signatures to go to ballot; 10 carrying and 7 meeting defeat. This surely does not indicate an excessive degree of disturbance.

Do these provisions injure business and retard the material growth of the city? Under these provisions, the federal census shows that this city has in the last decade outstripped all other American cities in the percentage of increase in population, in business and in building.

Do these provisions hamper the honest official in his administration of the public affairs? In the nine years passed under these measures, Los Angeles has held two recall elections. Three recall petitions have been filed, but one proved insufficient when the signatures were checked, and was therefore abandoned. In the other two cases, Councilman Davenport was recalled by a large majority and Mayor Harper resigned before the election occurred, realizing that he would be recalled. Rumors of threats to recall are, it is true, very common; but no attention is paid to them ordinarily either by the officials or by the people generally. As has been seen, in the nine years it has been found possible in only two cases to secure sufficient signatures to bring about recall elections. The great value of direct legislation consists not so much in its use, as in its possession which, like the gun behind the door, renders its use unnecessary.

What of the expense? 14 of the 17 measures submitted to ballot by petition were decided in elections called for other purposes and cost nothing; of the 14, 7 were initiatives and 7 referendums. There have been in the nine years of direct legislation in our city but 3 special elections due to that fact. One of these was an initiative ordinance prohibiting saloons which was overwhelmingly defeated; the other two were for the recall of the officials already referred to. The total cost of the 3 special elections due to these direct legislative provisions has amounted to less than twenty thousand dollars. As against this they havesaved the city millions of dollars. The giving away of a river-bed franchise was, on one occasion, prevented by the threatened use of the recall. This franchise was appraised by President Ripley of the Santa Fé Railroad as worth $1,000,000. On another occasion there was prevented by the use of the referendum, the sale by the council for $500 of a franchise, which was not only conservatively estimated to be worth $500,000 to the recipients, but yielded to a private corporation possession of the only practicable route for our proposed municipal railway to the harbor, for which purpose its value can scarcely be overestimated. On the one hand we have the expenditure for special elections in the nine years of some $20,000; on the other hand, we have a saving to the people in these two instances alone of more than $1,500,000. A member of a "machine" council once confessed to me in a burst of confidence that the amount of money saved to the people of Los Angeles through the fear of the recall, was, to use his expression, "incalculable." He said "the boys fear it and hate it venomously."

As moral safeguards, the people of Los Angeles value these provisions as highly as when used for financial protection. Under the Harper administration, the people not only considered that their property interests were menaced, but what was much worse, their children were threatened with demoralization through the wide open maintenance of establishments of vice. The people were not compelled to wait for the expiration of the official's term; they were not compelled to take the matter into the courts for an indefinite period of litigation. They found that their affairs had fallen into unworthy hands; possessing the power of the recall, they discharged their unsatisfactory servant and cleaned house.

"Do the people act wisely?" They do. Of the seventeen measures placed upon the ballot by petition, I can think of but one case, as I look back upon them, in which I feel sure that a mistake was made. The superiority of the people in the wisdom and sanity of their decisions over the acts of representative assemblies, can only be explained by remembering that the people decide perhaps seventeen questions in nine years, and that in each case the individual voter has considered a few questions for months, and votes upon these few in the quiet of his booth alone; while the ordinary legislator often votes upon scores of questions at a single sitting, amid tumult and uproar, the appeal to party passion and to his private pocketbook.

It is sometimes objected to these provisions that they are but mechanisms: as if improved machinery in the affairs of government were not as important as in commerce and manufactures. It is said that the forms of government that were good enough for Washington and Lincoln are good enough for us, assuming that because Washington used the stage coach and oxcart in his day, that he would, if living today, decline to avail himself of the advantages of the steam railway and the electric telegraph. The best there is is none too good for the American people in government as well as in industry.

Another charge is that few people vote on measures and that therefore such legislation constitutes government by the minority. So far as the experience of Los Angeles is concerned, this claim is not borne out by the facts. The percentage of votes cast for measures as compared with votes cast for elective officials is high, and steadily growing higher. In the general election of 1909 the average vote cast for initiatory and referendary measures was 27,354; the vote cast for all candidates for mayor was 37,255. The vote for direct measures, therefore, was 73 per cent of that cast for mayor. This is a high percentage, especially when we remember that the vote for mayor almost always greatly exceeds that cast for other offices. In 1911, however, when with a larger population and because of an unprecedentedly bitter campaign, the vote cast for mayor had risen to 137,255, the people did not neglect the measures submitted on the same ballot and we find the average vote upon these initiatory and referendary measures to be 109,255, or 79 per cent of the vote cast for mayor.

It seems clear that the people are interested in these measures; but supposing it to be true that on account of popular indifference, measures are sometimes passed by an actual minority of the total electorate, would it be either wise or just to disfranchise the active and conscientious portion of our citizenship because of the neglect of the franchise by the lazy and indifferent element? And if we did so, we could not limit the principle simply to direct legislation. Officials are elected every day by minorities of the total electorate. Mayor Harper, before the adoption of the primary system in our city, was elected by about one-third of the vote cast. Even at our last primary election had the mayoralty candidate receiving the highest vote secured a vote equivalent to one-fourth of the total registered vote, or a trifle more, he would have received a majority ballot and the election to the mayor's chair without a second election. If direct legislation is to be done away with because popular indifference sometimes permits the settlement of measures by a minority of the electorate; by the same token popular election of officials and representatives and all popular government whatsoever will also be abolished from the earth.

Friends of direct legislation do not, of course, consider these provisions perfect in their present form, even when considered with reference to their special adaptations to local needs. Time develops weaknesses and changing conditions bring the necessity for corresponding changes in the character of these elements of our government. One fault that has manifested itself in our city has been the tendency to remove the acts of the council from the operation of the council by passing important ordinances as "emergency" acts, not subject to the thirty-day delay allowed for the filing of referendum petitions. In one instance, in December, 1906, the Municipal League carried an ordinance, favored by the saloons and passed by the council under the "emergency" clause to the courts and secured an injunction against the council forbidding the use of the emergency clause in that case. The ordinance was thereupon dropped by the council. No other emergency ordinances have been taken before the courts, so that the experience of Los Angeles is too limited to show whether the courts will provide sufficient protection against the abuse by the council of their power of withholding ordinances from the operation of the referendum by passing them under the emergency clause.

Another difficulty which has not been in evidence in Los Angeles; but which, it is claimed, has been met with elsewhere, is the possibility of the submission of contradictory and ambiguous measures to the people. This is a difficulty by no means peculiar to direct legislation. The mills of the courts are kept ever busy grinding out interpretations of the contradictory and ambiguous statutes enacted by our representative assemblies. In Los Angeles the promoters of direct measures have as a rule been careful to secure competent legal assistance in drawing up their measures, and in one instance—that of the location of a slaughter-house district where four measures were submitted—the people with keen judgment selected the best one. Nevertheless it might be a wise thing to make it a part of the city attorney's duty, when requested, to assist promoters of popular measures in securing clearness and harmony in the text of their measures.

Allow me to emphasize one lesson in particular that the experience of Los Angeles teaches: *Do not place the percentages required for petitions high.* To be effective they must be available. Our experience has shown conclusively that there is no danger of their being used too often, and the very fact that they are always ready for use will exert such a wholesome influence on public servants that their actual use will be found seldom necessary.

The people of Los Angeles are well satisfied with the workings of these provisions which have almost without exception proven wise and truly conservative. This city is so wedded through her experience in the case of one of them, the recall, that the percentage has been lowered from 25 per cent to 20 per cent, and in the new charter it is proposed to reduce the percentage to 15. Los Angeles is so wedded to these provisions, that if the most noted experts of the world, after careful deliberation were to submit to the people of Los Angeles a new charter—and as you know, we are now preparing one—and should omit from its provisions the initiative, referendum or recall, or any one of them, it would be overwhelmingly defeated by the people.

In the past when corporation-controlled councils refused the people direct primaries, refused them a utilities commission, refused them new charters suited to the city's growing needs, and refused the people an opportunity to vote upon these matters, then it was that the people through the power of the initiative which they possessed, brushed aside their servants who had assumed to themselves the character of bosses, and enacted their sovereign will into law. By means of these provisions the people of Los Angeles have, and practice, the right of self-government.

I have dwelt at some length upon the experience of Los Angeles and shall but briefly refer to the experience of other cities of this and other states.

In San Bernardino, California, in the seven years of its operation the recall has been used once, in which case two councilmen were recalled for letting a public printing contract to a firm not the lowest bidder.

In Colton, California, three members of the board of trustees were recalled because they had voted unauthorized expenditures, and had refused to grant liquor licenses.

In Santa Monica, California, under threat of the recall, an official resigned.

In San Diego, California, a councilman managed to delay recall proceedings against him in the courts until the expiration of his term.

In Richmond, California, a recall election affected the seats of six councilmen; the incumbents were retained in office.

In Berkeley, a recall election was held to recall a councilman and two school directors; the incumbents were retained in office.[2]

The initiative has been used in California towns thus in Santa Monica once, once in Riverside, once in Fresno. The referendum has been used twice in Santa Barbara.

The cities of Seattle and Tacoma, Washington, have each recalled a mayor. In Everett, Washington, a councilman was recalled for his action in regard to a franchise. In Estacada, Washington, all the elective officials with the exception of the recorder were recalled, as it was charged, of gross mismanagement of the people's business.

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[2] I think these officials belonged to the Socialist party.—C. R. W.

In Junction City, Oregon, the mayor was recalled by a vote of 4 to 1.

In Dallas, Texas, two school directors were recalled in 1911.

In Des Moines, Iowa, three commissioners conspired to appoint a certain man to the police marshalship in accordance with a preëlection bargain. Threatened recall proceedings, however, caused them to drop their scheme and appoint a man to the office who held the public confidence. On another occasion, a police superintendent of that city was visited by a committee representing the gambling interests and threatened with recall unless he agreed to permit the reëstablishment of slot machines. He immediately informed the newspapers and the resulting publicity rendered futile any further talk of the recall.

In the city of San Francisco neither the recall nor the referendum has ever been used, although the percentage required for the recall is only 10 per cent. The initiative has been used six times since its adoption in 1900. A special election upon an ordinance initiated by the pool sellers was held in the year in which the provision was adopted. The ordinance was defeated by the people. In 1907 the liquor dealers initiated an ordinance which was also defeated. In 1908 one J. J. Egan when refused a street-railway franchise by the board of supervisors, attempted through the initiative to secure one from the people, but it was defeated at the polls. In 1910, 38 charter amendments were submitted; 18 by the people and 20 by the board of supervisors; of these 18 carried at the polls. In a special election held March, 1912, two ordinances were submitted through the initiative. The object of both ordinances was the acquisition by the city of the plant of the Home Telephone Company. The propositions carried by a vote of more than two to one; but owing to defects in their wording, the city attorney ruled that they were inoperative. The supervisors, however, have ruled that the ballot cast for the measures constitutes a popular mandate, and intend to submit the same propositions under a new form at a later date.

I append to this paper, to show to what extent and with what intelligence the people vote, a list of all the propositions voted upon in the state since the adoption of the present California Constitution in 1879; and the city votes upon such measures in San Francisco and Los Angeles.

Initiative

	DATE FILED	CLERK'S CERTIFICATE	CLERK'S FINDING	ELECTION	RESULT
Slaughter houses................	11-4-04	11-4-04	Sufficient	12- 5-04	Unlawful in city: 6360 yes, 7772 no. Unlawful 8th ward: 4182 yes, 5053 no. Unlawful 6th ward; 2256 yes, 5265 no. Unlawful except certain sections of 6th and 8th wards: 8805 yes, 4023 no.
No saloons......................	4-13-05	4-21-05	Sufficient	6- 2-05	8349 yes, 15487 no.
Crematories.....................	12-26-05	1- 2-06	Insufficient		
Creating board of public utilities	10-25-09	10-29-09	Sufficient	12- 7-09	16,626 yes, 9696 no.
Dice shaking ordinance..........	10-27-09	11- 3-09	Insufficient		
Dice shaking ordinance amended	11- 4-09	11- 5-09	Sufficient	12- 7-09	12,637 yes, 16997 no.
Municipal newspaper	10-28-11	11- 7-11	Sufficient	12- 5-11	58,134 yes, 43937 no.
No saloons......................	10-30-11	11- 7-11	Sufficient	12- 5-11	32,283 yes, 88395 no.
Aqueduct investigating board.....	3-19-12	3-25-12	Sufficient	5-28-12	16,564 yes, 15,697 no.
Improving Pacific Avenue Harbor Boulevard......................	4-26-12	5- 6-12	Sufficient	5-28-12	11,412 yes, 20,415 no.

Referendum

	DATE FILED	CLERK'S CERTIFICATE	CLERK'S FINDING	ELECTION	RESULT
South Park Avenue franchise ordinance	5- 4-08	5-12-08	Sufficient	12- 7-09	10,633 yes, 15,789 no.
Dance halls	9-23-08	10- 5-08	Insufficient		
Dance halls amended	10-14-08	10-21-08	Insufficient		
Telephone rates	5- 4-09	5-14-09	Sufficient	12- 7-09	12,908 yes, 14,129 no.
Dance halls	11-16-09	11-23-09	Insufficient		
License ordinance	4-27-10	5- 4-10	Sufficient	6-30-10	16,698 yes, 9042 no.
Park salary ordinance	5-20-10	5-26-10	Insufficient	-	
Park salary ordinance amended	6- 4-10	6- 9-10	Insufficient		
Electric light rates	6-10-10	6-13-10	Sufficient	6-30-10	18,488 yes, 8961 no.
Groove girder rail ordinance	7-26-10	8- 5-10	Sufficient	12- 5-11	81,700 yes, 23,309 no.
Tuberculin milk test ordinance	1- 3-12	1-12-12	Sufficient	5-28-12	13,899 yes, 18,883 no.
Franchise regulating ordinance	2-29-12	3- 9-12	Sufficient	5-28-12	21,085 yes, 11,662 no.

Recall

J. P. Davenport, Council 6th ward	6-13-04	6-20-04	Sufficient	9-16-04	Davenport, 1083. Houghton, 1837.
E. P. Ford, Council 1st ward	6.11-06	6-16-06	Insufficient		
A. C. Harper, Mayor	2- 9-09	2-16-09	Sufficient	3-26-09	Wheeler, 12,384. Alexander, 14,062.

Referendum in California

Official returns of votes on constitutional and legislative acts referred to the people for ratification, also on propositions submitted to popular vote, from the adoption of the constitution of 1879. (Wherever possible the real purpose, rather than the official title, of the measure is given):

	YES	NO	TOTAL* BALLOTS CAST
May 7, 1879. New constitution....................	77,959	67,134	
September 3, 1879. Proposition:			
Approving Chinese immigration................	883	154,638	160,233
November 4, 1884. Constitutional amendments.....			196,704
Repealing provision that street improvement funds should be collected in advance...........	149,285	7,363	
State board of education to compile and publish text books..................................	143,017	11,930	
Providing that assessment of mortgages, money or solvent credits shall not be raised above face value......................................	128,371	27,934	
November 2, 1886. Constitutional amendment.......			195,292
Imposing a 2 per cent gross income tax on railroads, and exempting them from other taxation	9,992	123,173	
April 12, 1887. Constitutional amendments:			
Ratifying establishment of the supreme court commission and making chief justice elective by court on expiration of term of incumbent.......	29,349	41,367	
Ratifying establishment of the supreme court commission and making chief justice immediately elective by court........................	27,659	43,205	
Extending power of framing charters to cities of 10,000 inhabitants............................	37,791	34,156	
1890. Constitutional amendment..................			252,457
S. C. A. No. 6—Extending power of framing charters to cities between 10,000 and 3500 inhabitants..	114,617	42,076	
1892. Propositions................................			269,585
The election of United States senators by the people.......................................	187,958	13,342	
Approving $600,000 bond issue for San Francisco ferry building.................................	91,296	90,430	
Should there be an educational qualification for voters?......................................	151,320	41,059	
Shall the state debt be refunded?...............	79,900	85,604	
Constitutional amendments:			
S. C. A. No. 10—Extending sessions of legislature from 60 to 100 days.......................	36,442	153,831	
A. C. A. No. 7—Extending period for redemption of bonds from 20 to 40 years..................	108,942	59,548	

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*The total gives the highest number of ballots cast at the election and includes those not voting on submitted measures.

	YES	NO	TOTAL BALLOTS CAST
S. C. A. No. 11—Increasing duties and salary of lieutenant-governor and removing the $1600 limit on the pay of clerks	43,456	128,743	
S. C. A. No. 5—Making void any expenditure in excess of appropriation, except with the consent of a majority of the state board of examiners, and permitting a deficiency bill to contain more than one item	69,286	87,708	
S. C. A. No. 14—Revising the power of adopting charters in cities of more than 3500 inhabitants	114,617	42,076	
November 6, 1894. Constitutional amendments			284,548
A. C. A. No. 8—Establishing an educational qualification for voters	170,113	32,281	
S. C. A. No. 14—Providing that new counties shall be formed under general laws	140,713	44,824	
A. C. A. No. 7—Exempting fruit and nut-bearing trees under the age of three years from taxation	147,002	48,153	
A. C. A. No. 12—Authorizing the legislature to provide for the disposition of real estate acquired by aliens by descent or devise	119,309	56,805	
S. C. A. No. 7—Increasing the membership of the state board of equalization	86,777	88,605	
S. C. A. No. 17—Striking out the provision that in consolidated cities and counties of more than 100,000 population there should be two boards of supervisors	106,768	62,425	
S. C. A. No. 16—Exempting free public libraries and free museums from taxation	135,741	46,338	
A. C. A. No. 31—Adding the president of the University and professor of pedagogy therein to the state board of education	98,676	77,295	
S. C. A. No. 20—Increasing pay of legislators to $1000 for each session	45,675	146,680	
1896. Constitutional amendments			299,788
A. C. A. No. 11—Granting suffrage to women	110,353	137,099	
A. C. A. No. 19—Limiting liability of stockholders	78,886	121,773	
A. C. A. No. 33—Repealing the mortgage tax	82,609	109,433	
S. C. A. No. 8—Permitting the use of voting machines	63,620	158,093	
S. C. A. No. 25—Exempting cities adopting free holders' charters from general laws in municipal affairs	101,587	74,353	
S. C. A. No. 13—Granting cities power to govern police courts, boards of election, and, in consolidated cities and counties, the county officers	99,888	74,906	
1898. Constitutional amendments			287,055
S. C. A. No. 41—Permitting payment of claims against San Francisco and Vallejo	54,013	90,602	

	YES	NO	TOTAL BALLOTS CAST
S. C. A. No. 10—Authorizing counties to frame their own county government acts	74,816	75,037	
S. C. A. No. 44—Providing for the creation of a court of claims	69,232	75,695	
A. C. A. No. 37—Exempting San Francisco from legislation in regard to county governments	61,843	76,128	
A. C. A. No. 36—Removing disqualification of lieutenant-governor of holding any other office, also providing that the president *pro tem.* of the Senate succeeds after the lieutenant-governor in case of death or disability	79,748	66,260	
A. C. A. No. 38—Authorizing the legislature to raise taxes for the support of high schools and technical schools	56,726	85,712	
A. C. A. No. 34—Providing for divided sessions of the legislature and extension of session from 60 to 75 days	63,195	81,269	
Proposition:			
For convention to revise the constitution	42,566	65,007	
November 6, 1900. Constitutional amendments			303,874
A. C. A. No. 6—Exempting church property from taxation	115,851	102,564	
A. C. A. No. 23—Exempting Stanford University from taxation	137,607	67,737	
A. C. A. No. 14—Exempting California School of Mechanical Arts from taxation	111,892	70,264	
S. C. A. No. 14—Exempting state and local bonds from taxation	75,280	92,923	
S. C. A. No. 4—Authorizing laws regulating primary elections	106,733	51,519	
S. C. A. No. 9—Raising the salaries of judges	60,754	85,472	
S. C. A. No. 15—Permitting San Francisco and Vallejo to pay certain debts	85,461	62,993	
S. C. A. No. 22—Establishing district courts of appeal	69,997	79,354	
November 4, 1902. Constitutional amendments			304,473
S. C. A. No. 4—Authorizing tax for high schools and technical schools	89,947	60,861	
S. C. A. No. 18—Authorizing division of the state into fish and game districts	88,622	54,930	
S. C. A. No. 3—Exempting state and local bonds from taxation	74,526	66,132	
S. C. A. No. 6—Permitting amendments to city charters to be submitted by petition	70,748	53,182	
A. C. A. No. 25—Eight-hour law on public work	114,972	33,752	
S. C. A. No. 14—Permitting use of voting machines	83,966	43,127	

	YES	NO	TOTAL BALLOTS CAST
S. C. A. No. 20—Authorizing appropriations for state highways	78,479	59,632	
A. C. A. No. 28—Establishing a state public service commission	31,474	118,791	
S. C. A. No. 13—Abolishing the grand juries	56,222	72,153	
November 8, 1904			331,871
Act authorizing $2,000,000 bond issue for San Francisco sea-wall	119,416	26,835	
Constitutional amendments:			
S. C. A. No. 2—Establishing district courts of appeal	93,306	36,277	
S. C. A. No. 4—Exempting property of California Academy of Sciences from taxation	73,207	62,275	
S. C. A. No. 11—Exempting shipping from taxation	48,983	81,857	
S. C. A. No. 20—Extending sessions of the legislature from 60 to 80 days	62,792	63,983	
A. C. A. No. 17—Exempting $100 of personal property from taxation	74,437	45,221	
A. C. A. No. 26—Permitting adoption of codes in bulk	59,050	59,933	
November 6, 1906. Constitutional amendments			312,030
A. C. A. No. 5—Exempting Cogswell Polytechnic College from taxation	65,250	43,327	
A. C. A. No. 11—Raising the salaries of the justices of the supreme court and district court of appeal	50,957	49,905	
A. C. A. No. 12—Raising the salaries of the state officers	31,063	71,435	
A. C. A. No. 13—Making public bonds payable at any place	69,305	32,384	
A. C. A. No. 14—Permitting charter cities to frame new charters	49,327	48,391	
S. C. A. No. 2—Exempting officers of charter cities from the four years' limitation on term of office.	53,307	43,200	
S. C. A. No. 14—Raising the salary of the lieutenant-governor	31,556	64,944	
S. C. A. No. 20—Permitting renewals of corporation franchises	37,098	65,982	
S. C. A. No. 38—Permitting deposits of public funds in bank	62,767	35,213	
S. C. A. No. 40—Raising the pay of legislators to $1000 per session and limiting expense of attachés	37,360	57,785	
A. C. A. No. 2—Permitting San Francisco to acquire and dispose of streets and parks	35,649	58,042	
S. C. A. No. 2—Permitting San Francisco and San José to amend their charters without ratification by the legislature	31,867	58,254	

	YES	NO	TOTAL BALLOTS CAST
S. C. A. No. 8—Permitting borrowers to contract to pay the mortgage tax	54,894	39,876	
S. C. A. No. 12—Permitting San Francisco, San José and Santa Clara to issue 75-year bonds	48,221	43,629	
November 3, 1908. Constitutional amendments			386,597
S. C. A. No. 1—Separating state and local taxation	87,977	114,104	
S. C. A. No. 14—Raising the pay of state officers	92,558	92,556	
S. C. A. No. 16—Raising pay of legislators to $1000 per session and limiting expense of attachés	116,600	68,902	
S. C. A. No. 26—Abolishing mortgage tax	90,061	90,896	
S. C. A. No. 29—Extending time of maturity of state bonds from 20 to 75 years	97,237	63,465	
S. C. A. No. 31—Authorizing renewal of franchise of corporations	115,412	81,849	
S. C. A. No. 32—Limiting expense of legislative employees	135,113	48,144	
S. C. A. No. 33—Limiting liability of stockholders in world fairs	103,025	70,575	
*S. C. A. No. 34—Authorizing sales of stock for future delivery	96,235	84,778	
A. C. A. No. 3—Authorizing the legislature to pass a direct primary law	152,853	46,772	
A. C. A. No. 7—Permitting the legislature to regulate fees of officers and pay of jurors	107,244	69,479	
A. C. A. No. 8—Including evening schools and kindergartens in the state school system	97,763	87,584	
A. C. A. No. 24—Changing method of selecting the state board of education	67,497	107,613	
A. C. A. No. 28—Extending time for approval of bills after legislature adjourns from 10 to 30 days	122,362	50,979	
Referred acts:			
To remove capital from Sacramento to Berkeley	87,378	165,630	
Authorizing $2,000,000 bond issue for San Francisco sea-wall	92,532	96,963	
Authorizing bond issue for the purchase of India Basin	84,526	105,478	
November 8, 1910. Constitutional amendments			385,607
S. C. A. No. 1—Separation of state and local taxation	104,850	96,493	
S. C. A. No. 11—Abolishing the mortgage tax	118,927	79,435	
S. C. A. No. 36—Permitting extra sessions of the superior court	121,997	44,138	
S. C. A. No. 38—Changing county boundary lines by general laws	96,607	78,808	
S. C. A. No. 44—Classifying cities and towns by population for purposes of regulating banking	118,970	48,583	

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* This amendment was submitted under the title "forbidding lotteries and fictitious sales of stock."

	YES	NO	TOTAL BALLOTS CAST
S. C. A. No. 52—Appropriating $5,000,000 for the Panama-Pacific Exposition	174,513	50,857	
A. C. A. No. 14—Reserving the right to fish on public lands	167,869	27,577	
A. C. A. No. 33—Authorizing San Francisco to amend its charter to raise $5,000,000 for the Panama-Pacific Exposition	180,043	34,723	
Referred acts:			
Authorizing a $9,000,000 bond issue of San Francisco harbor	130,115	41,831	
Authorizing $18,000,000 bond issue for state highways	93,297	80,509	
Authorizing purchase of India Basin ($1,000,000)	103,051	65,897	
Authorizing $2,000,000 bond issue on San Diego sea-wall	117,814	64,649	

Votes on amendments to the state constitution of California submitted to the people, October 10, 1911

	FOR	AGAINST	MAJORITY
1. State inspection of weights and measures	165,881	53,668	112,213
2. Empowering counties to adopt charters	130,823	76,177	54,651
3. Dividing sessions of the legislature	127,794	79,348	48,446
4. Granting suffrage to women	125,037	121,450	3,587
5. Granting logging roads rights of eminent domain and making them common carriers	141,436	58,105	83,331
6. Providing requirements for framing and amending city charters	120,905	77,499	43,406
7. Establishing the initiative and referendum	168,744	52,093	116,651
8. Establishing recall of elected officials	178,115	53,755	124,360
9. Forbidding reversals in criminal cases on technicalities	158,549	53,958	104,591
10. Authorizing compulsory workmen's compensation law	147,567	65,255	82,312
11. Exempting civil service employees from 4 years limit	133,747	60,031	73,716
12. Giving railroad commission power to fix rates of public service corporations	140,146	72,283	67,863
13. Giving cities complete powers over police courts, etc	132,634	64,790	67,844
14. Authorizing cities to own and operate utilities	133,411	64,221	69,190
15. Prohibiting change of school books oftener than 4 years	168,010	43,943	124,067
16. Making railroad commission appointive and increase number	133,746	72,240	57,506

	FOR	AGAINST	MAJORITY
17. Permitting elections by majority vote to cities and counties	137,156	59,042	78,114
18. Giving legislature power to abolish justices of the peace	104,105	98,923	5,182
19. Authorizing peace officers and railroad commission to accept passes	100,014	106,146	6,132
20. Making clerk of supreme court appointive	122,751	79,284	43,467
21. Giving legislature power to impeach judges district court appeals	157,596	49,345	108,251
22. Giving war veterans $1000 tax exemption	106,554	96,891	9,663
23. Enlarging powers of railroad commission	144,205	63,380	80,825

Comparison of Votes

YEAR	TOTAL VOTE	HIGHEST VOTE ON REFERRED MEASURE	PER CENT OF TOTAL	LOWEST VOTE ON REFERRED MEASURE	PER CENT OF TOTAL
1879—May 7	145,093	145,093			
1879—September 3	160,233	155,521	97.06		
1884	196,704	156,648	79.63	154,947	78.77
1886	195,292	133,165	68.18		
1887	(*)	71,947		70,716	
1890	252,457	156,693	62.06		
1892	269,585	201,300	74.66	156,693	58.12
1894	284,548	202,394	71.13	169,193	59.47
1896	299,788	247,452	82.54	174,794	58.31
1898	287,055	149,853	52.21	107,573	37.47
1900	303,874	218,415	71.87	146,226	48.12
1902	304,473	150,265	49.31	123.930	40.73
1904	331,871	146,251	44.06	118,983	35.85
1906	312,030	108,577	34.80	90,121	28.88
1908	386,597	253,008	65.44	150,702	38.98
1910	385,607	225,370	58.44	166,135	43.08

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* Special election for amendments. Records of total not kept. Probably same as highest vote.

Status of the Initiative and Referendum[*]

Analytical table showing the progress of the movement in the United States with the various provisions made for the three most vital elements of an amendment, viz.: the majority required to enact a measure, the size of petitions and the right to propose constitutional amendments by initiative.

STATE AND DATE OF ADOPTION	PER CENT SIGNATURES, REFERENDUM	PER CENT SIGNATURES, INITIATIVE	MEASURES ADOPTED BY THE MAJORITY OF THE VOTES CAST	DO PEOPLE HAVE THE CONSTITUTIONAL INITIATIVE? PER CENT GIVEN FOR PETITION	VOTING STRENGTH OF THE STATE, 1910
1898, South Dakota	5	5	Not specified	No	105,801
1900, Utah				No	108,598
1902 Oregon	5	8	Thereon	Yes, 8	117,690
1905, Nevada (referendum only)	10		In election	Yes	20,626
1906, Montana	5	8	Not specified	No	68,186
1907, Oklahoma	5	8	Referendum thereon Initiative election	Yes, 15	257,240
1908, Maine	10,000 voters	12,000 voters	Thereon	No	141,031
1908, Missouri	5	5 (reduce from 8 by law)	Thereon	Yes	715,717
1910, Arkansas	5	8	Thereon	Yes	159,412
1910, Colorado	5	8	Thereon	Yes	206,214
1911, States in which legislatures have submitted amendments to April 1:					
California	5	5 and 8	Thereon	Yes	385,652
Washington	6	10	Thereon	No	176,141
Nebraska	10	10	Thereon 35% "yes"	Yes, 15	236,673
North Dakota	5	8	Thereon	Yes, 8	92,018
Wyoming	25	25	In election	Yes, 25	37,926
Nevada (initiative)	10	10	Thereon	Yes, 10	20,626
Wisconsin	8	8	Thereon	Yes, 10	450,000
Idaho	General provision for referendum	No details		No	86,159

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[*] This note prepared by George Judson King shows the present status of the movement for the initiative and the referendum. To this should be added the Ohio amendments providing for the initiative and referendum adopted at the special election, September 3, 1912.

THE WORK OF THE LEAGUE OF CALIFORNIA MUNICIPALITIES[1]

BY H. A. MASON

San Francisco

ONE of the great questions confronting all students of municipal administration is: How can we develop a class of trained officials for our cities and towns, who will bring to the administration of our local affairs a practical knowledge of the things necessary to insure the highest degree of efficiency?

In every one of our local communities we have an abundance of raw material out of which may be made officials more or less expert, men (and women) intelligent and honest, earnest, and eager to render public service, yet ignorant of the best methods to pursue to accomplish the highest results. The problem, therefore, is how to shape this raw material into a finished product that will serve the public needs in the way of educated officials, educated in the special business of municipal administration.

We have found comparatively little difficulty here in California in securing the election of a fairly high class of public officials. This is due to the fact that we have absolutely non-partisan elections and have succeeded in eliminating the political boss from our municipal affairs.

We have, therefore, secured the foundation upon which to build a system of municipal administration by trained officials, and even now are engaged in introducing an educational system so that these officials may eventually become trained to the efficient discharge of their public duties.

The first requisite is to secure long terms for our public officials. We cannot train a man in a year or two years. Nearly all of our elected officials now hold for four years and some for six. We are gradually reducing the number of elective officers and making administrative officers appointive to serve during good behavior or under a merit system. Thus we provide sufficient time for an official to train himself if he possesses the necessary ambition. As one of the means employed to furnish the training of officials comes the work of the League of California Municipalities.

This association was found in December, 1898, nearly fourteen years ago.

At that time there were about one hundred incorporated cities and towns in the state and the idea was suggested to the mayor of a small town near San Francisco that it would be a good idea to have an organization of city officials that they might talk over the problems of municipal management, exchange their experiences and compare methods for doing the various classes of municipal work. Circulars were sent out to the mayors of these cities seeking their views as to the desirability of such an organization.

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[1] Read at the Los Angeles meeting of the National Municipal League. Mr. Mason has been secretary of the League of California Municipalities since its organization and has been the chief factor in its success.—EDITOR.

The idea proved to be an attractive one to many mayors, and as a result a meeting was called and the League of California Municipalities was organized with thirteen cities represented by twenty-nine officials in attendance. James D. Phelan, then mayor of San Francisco, was the first president and the writer was elected the secretary, a position he still holds.

The League now has one hundred and fifty cities and towns on its membership list, and its last annual convention was attended by three hundred and fifty officials and others interested in municipal subjects.

We maintain that the annual contention of the League is a valuable school for municipal officials. It is the only direct means by which municipal officials may learn improved methods of performing the different kinds of municipal work, the best practice in administering local affairs, how various problems may be effectively solved, and how to avoid extravagances and failures.

We have ever tried to have the subjects treated in a practical way, avoiding as much as possible the academic form. For example: Instead of discussing municipal ownership as a question of economics we invite discussion of "Experiences of cities with the municipal operation of water works, lighting systems, etc." In this way the successful operation of public utilities is emphasized and such towns as may not be wholly successful in such operations are stimulated to better endeavor.

Perhaps no better illustration of the scope of the discussions at our conventions can be given than to present the list of subjects considered at our last convention: "Asphaltic base oils, use of for roads and streets" (technical); "Commission form of government," presented by mayors of five cities having that form; "Corrugated iron culverts" (technical); "Recent court decisions affecting municipalities," "Municipal lighting systems," by a professor in the state university; "Financial reports of cities," by the state controller; "Fire and building ordinances;" "New idea in fire department buildings;" "Municipal franchises under the new constitutional amendment;" "Garbage disposal," two papers, one for small towns and one for large cities; "Experts in municipal administration;" "Importance of sewage disposal;" "Reform in taxation;" "Sterilization of water supplies;" "Manufacture and use of vitrified sewer pipe;" "Suggestions for amending the purity of election laws;" "Street paving methods." Besides there were informal discussions on a variety of topics.

The California League includes in its organization all municipal officials and at its conventions it resolves itself into separate departments. The clerks, auditors and assessors have a separate meeting for discussing accounting and kindred topics. City attorneys have their department for the discussion of legal questions. The engineers and street superintendents discuss their special problems among themselves. The League as a whole also has a meeting during a portion of each day.

In addition to this the State Health Officers Association holds its annual meeting at the same time and place, and one joint meeting is held where some phase of municipal sanitation is the main subject presented.

Two years ago we added another feature to our annual meeting, a municipal exhibition. Here is exhibited the appliances and apparatus used in the performance of municipal work. At this exposition the municipal official may familiarize himself with modern municipal machinery, and this has the same relative value to a municipal official that an exhibition of farm machinery has to a farmer. It is conducive of efficiency. During the first years of the League we held three-day sessions; now we consume a week. We aim to make that week as educational as possible. It may be likened to a university "short course series" in municipal administration. We aim to furnish instruction by experts. Those who prepare papers are selected with a view to obtaining men "who know what they are talking about." It is unfortunate for the speaker if he does not. The quizzing that he would receive would demonstrate his incapacity.

Speaking of short courses in connection with university work, leads me to state that our next convention is to be held at Berkeley, the seat of our state university. We propose at that time to impress our university professors with the importance of providing for municipal officers some sort of a short lecture course in connection with their curriculum.

In addition to the formal discussions at the opening meetings, the bringing together of a body of men engaged in public work promotes discussion of municipal affairs. During the recesses, at meal times, wherever and whenever two or more men meet the discussions are continued and extended. Everybody "talks shop." If you could attend one of these conventions, you would be amazed at the exclusion of private affairs from the conversation about you. It argues well that so many men can lay aside, so completely as these men do, their private interest and center their entire thought on public welfare.

We found at the outset of the League's existence that if we were to maintain continuous interest in work, a publication of some kind would be necessary. Before the end of the first year the monthly publication, *California Municipalities*, afterwards *Pacific Municipalities*, was issued and is still serving the purpose of giving to the city officials of the state an epitome of the news affecting municipalities and timely articles concerning municipal affairs.

This publication is sent free to the principal officers of cities belonging to the League. This is in itself a means of transmitting knowledge and serves to educate the officials that they may serve the public better.

The League also maintains a bureau of information. City officials can ask for information and it is furnished or may ask questions which are answered in most cases. Here are kept copies of ordinances, specifications relating to public work, legal opinions, pamphlets, general literature connected with municipal affairs. This service is of special value to the smaller towns and is availed of extensively.

I trust that I have said enough to convince you that the League of California Municipalities is a valuable educational institution, spreading the light of knowledge, not particularly in dark places, but seeking to illumine the path of progress sought by every one who is interested in public affairs. Your president, in his opening address, has emphasized the necessity of seeking the aid of experts in the administration of municipal affairs. We must have them, and if every officer can be trained specially to discharge public duties the perfection of municipal government would be quickly secured. But we cannot find trained men in sufficient numbers to fill every office. As long as we elect our officials, men ignorant of their public duties will be chosen to fill offices of public trust. Any means that will impart to these men a greater knowledge of the things they should know, ought to be welcomed and made use of. I have nothing better to suggest in this line than an organization like the League of California Municipalities.

In addition to exercising an educational function, the League has performed some noteworthy work in bettering conditions for the administration of municipal affairs.

It has concerned itself very largely in matters of legislation. The main objects in view in the enactment of laws have been: (1) To secure more and more power to the municipalities. (2) To simplify procedure, and conversely to oppose any threatened legislation that violated these principles.

At every session of the legislature a representative of the League has been in almost constant attendance. We have been fortunate in having active supporters for all measures in each house of the legislature and by the use of diplomacy have succeeded in passing nearly all of our measures.

Among the important ones may be enumerated acts: Simplifying the procedure for issuing municipal bonds; Lengthening the terms of municipal officers; Providing methods by which public libraries may be established in every incorporated town; Providing two complete alternative measures for the improvement of streets by special assessments, known as the Improvement Acts of 1901 and 1911; Decreasing the number of elective officers and making them appointive; Exempting municipal bonds from taxation; Providing an optional form of commission government for the smaller towns; Providing for a system of reports from municipalities. This last named measure was secured only after several years of agitation.

Almost from its inception, the League resolved upon improved systems of accounting. We endeavored first to secure a uniform system by the voluntary action of the city officials, and made but very little progress. We finally reached the conclusion that if we could secure a uniform system of annual reports, a uniform accounting system would naturally be adopted, because in getting uniform results uniformity of methods would naturally suggest themselves.

It was necessary therefore to vest in some central authority the power to require annual reports of the financial transactions of every municipality. We were fortunate in having a state controller (Hon. A. B. Nye) who was in full sympathy with this reform. He took hold of the matter in earnest and without legislation and without increase of his office force undertook to secure the financial reports. He prepared at first very simple forms and sent them to each city and town. As the subject had been discussed at our annual conventions many of the auditors knew what was coming and as a result nearly two-thirds of the cities furnished the information desired and the controller in his biennial report in 1908 presented a fairly good exhibit of municipal expenditures.

In 1909 a bill was presented to the legislature requiring all cities to make reports to the controller in such form as he might desire and making an appropriation to enable that officer to carry out the purpose of the act. The finance committee objected to the appropriation and the bill failed of passage.

It was made, however, a sort of a political issue and in 1910 the political parties fell into the hands of progressives and declarations were made in favor of uniform systems of accounting for the state, counties and municipalities. In response to these declarations the legislature passed the necessary act, even broader than had been proposed two years before, for it included the counties within the scope of its operations as well as the cities and towns. Last year the controller employed assistance in preparing forms and tabulating the statistics and issued in pamphlet form the first annual report of financial statistics of the municipalities of the state. It is the most complete report of its kind ever issued in this country and we believe that it will lead to a uniform system of accounting by the cities, towns and counties of California.

The most distressing part of our legislative duties has been to prevent vicious acts from being passed. As long as the legislature was under the control of "special interests" there were continual attempts to gain some private advantage from the municipal corporations that were subject to legislative control. When any measures appeared we could only expose them and trust to publicity to effect their defeat. Many proposed acts were thus disposed of, but once in a while a bad act was passed despite our best efforts. In 1901 the legislature proposed an amendment to the constitution which practicaly deprived all municipalities of the right to operate public utilities. The League appealed to the voters to defeat it: in the campaign against it we distributed over 300,000 circulars throughout the state. The amendment was defeated by a vote of about six to one, and incidentally the member of the legislature who proposed it was retired to private life. I wish to say, that with the inauguration of a progressive legislature in 1911, there was no attempted "hold up" of the municipalities, in fact it was the first legislature in the history of the state when we felt the assurance that the interests of our cities were safe from attack.

We have also done considerable work in preparing model ordinances on a number of subjects, such as building laws and fire protection ordinances for small towns, ordinances for the collection of taxes, license ordinances.

On two occasions we united to defend several small towns in law suits where the principal involved concerned every city in the state. A New Jersey concern sought to collect a royalty on an alleged patent on the application of crude oil to the streets for the purpose of laying dust. The League raised a defense fund of $5000, engaged able patent lawyers and after a year's contest won a victory. We are now defending our cities from the demands of owners of a patent septic tank.

The special work which the League now has on hand is to secure home rule for the cities and counties of the state in the matter of taxation. Since we have home rule in the expending revenue, we believe that home rule in raising revenue is equally important. A petition is now being circulated to submit a constitutional amendment giving to the voters of the cities and counties the right to change the present system, but changes can only take place by the process of the referendum.

Professor Plehn, yesterday stated that the proposed amendment would enable cities "to tax whom they choose or exempt from taxation whom they choose." I was surprised that a university professor, usually so careful in stating facts, should make such a gross inaccuracy. The proposed amendment provides that property may be classified for purposes of taxation, or exemption from taxation, but taxes shall be uniform for each class.

While California is widely known for its progressiveness, it must not be assumed that we are all progressive. We are not unanimous. So naturally when a reform scheme is put forth, we find individuals here and there who are ready to give it the ax. The attack is usually accompanied by doleful prophecies of things that are going to happen, or *might* happen. But the things prophesied, the dire results, the sad catastrophies, somehow fail to connect. The quotation from the Harvard professor in his argument against home rule, quoted yesterday, provoked a smile from us Californians, who had heard the same thing thirty years ago, and have learned to place a value on such prophecies—a value about equal to those of the professional clairvoyant and palmist.

So do not be worried. Under home rule in taxation, we are not going to array city against city, we are not going to commercially cut throats, nor are we going to commit any crime against the fourteenth amendment. We will be rational and sane, and when we get home rule in taxation (which may not be this year or next, but will be soon), you will be able to point with pride to another of California's municipal achievements.

We feel that the League of California Municipalities has done, is doing and will continue to do valuable work in promoting the interests of the municipalities of the state and of the people who reside in them.

Whatever good we have accomplished has been the result of recognizing certain business principles in its organization and conduct. At the threshold of its organization we clearly saw that a great work could be done, but that it could not be done for nothing. That it was as impossible for the public to receive something for nothing as it was for an individual. Whatever is worth having is worth paying for was a maxim to be recognized. Moreover, there was a field for an active worker, a job for a man and he should receive pay for what he did.

So the League fixed a schedule of annual dues that would provide a fund from which would be paid a salary to the secretary, but he could not get the salary unless he demonstrated that the service he was to render was sufficiently valuable to induce the cities and towns to become and remain members of the League. These annual dues range from $10 to $60 a year, according to population and the annual revenue is now about $3000. The fact that the membership is increasing every year and that a town rarely loses its membership ought to be proof of the fact that the League of California Municipalities has justified its existence.

We have been conservative in many respects. We have heard all sides of the questions of public ownership, direct legislation, the recall, commission government, but we have never gone on record as favoring or disfavoring any of these ideas. However, we have never opposed them and probably most of our officials favor them. We recognized that there are powerful forces operating in behalf of the public good; we do not seek to obstruct any movement that promises to promote the public welfare.

There have also been policies to be avoided. The meetings of the League have not been noted for their entertainment features. We have discouraged sight-seeing trips, elaborate banquets and those things that might be called pleasures. As the expenses of those in attendance are generally paid by the cities sending their officials, we do not wish it to be said that such officials are enjoying a junketing trip at the expense of the taxpayers. On one occasion the convention declined an invitation to a banquet. Not until all the business of a meeting is concluded do we indulge in any sightseeing. We never permit discussions of political questions nor representatives of special interests to address the convention.

I think now that I have said all that is necessary concerning the organization to which I have given the greater part of the past fourteen years, years which I regard as the best and most pleasurable of my life. The work has been most interesting and you will pardon the feeling of satisfaction with which I regard the results of my labors.

As I stated at the outset an organization of this kind is largely educational. It is valuable because its benefits reach directly to those whom we must look to to transform our municipal conditions. They are the performers, the men "on the job" who must apply the new schemes of municipal administration suggested by such an organization as this. You must look to them to give vitality to the ideas that you produce.

I believe that there should be a more intimate association of the National Municipal League with the various state organizations of municipal officials. Whenever, as a fruit of your discussions, a plan of action is produced that will improve our system of municipal administration it should be laid before a body of officers charged by law with the administration of affairs. More than likely they will welcome any suggestion you may make and give actual trial to the scheme.

Right here I wish to announce that one of the themes you have discussed at this conference will be taken up at our next annual meeting next September. I refer to the matter of excess condemnation. It is one which will appeal to the good sense of every public official and find support with every thinking private citizen.

I think that I can promise that our League will make use of your discussion of this subject, that it will appoint a committee to prepare the necessary amendment to our constitution, present it to the legislature and if submitted to the people assist in a campaign for its adoption. Similar action by the leagues of other states would produce far-reaching results.

It might possibly be wise for you as a national organization to keep a watchful eye on the workings of the various state leagues of city officials. Where they are weak strengthen them, commending if you can, such features of the California league as will produce practical results. I would also commend the Iowa league as being a most worthy body. It is organized on lines similar to that in this state.

I believe that in this work you have an engaging field. The whole country should be thoroughly organized. Your body can, if it wills to be, the parent organization in this country to whom we will look for guidance and for inspiration. Remember that our chief function is educational, that without education there is no progress, that the first great duty is to educate our municipal officials, that they may in turn transmit the knowledge and wisdom that should be theirs to that multitude of citizens who chose them for their leaders and teachers.

SOCIALISM IN CALIFORNIA MUNICIPALITIES[1]

BY IRA BROWN CROSS, PH.D.

Leland Stanford Jr. University

MANY references have been made in the papers and discussions of this Convention to a comparatively new force of increasing importance which has entered the field of national and municipal politics. That force is the Socialist movement which has grown with startling rapidity in all parts of the country during the last few years.

In 1910 the Socialists won their first important victory by carrying Milwaukee. This placed them before the nation as a force which had to be reckoned with in municipal politics. Their administration during the last two years has been watched more closely perhaps than that of the officials of any other city. In 1911, according to Professor Hoxie of the University of Chicago, the spring elections resulted in the following Socialist officials being chosen: 28 mayors, village presidents and township chairmen; 167 aldermen, councillors and village and township trustees; 15 assessors; 62 school officials; 65 connected with the administration of justice and the police, and 67 others in minor capacity. In the November elections of that year, the number of Socialist officeholders, state, county and municipal, increased from 435 to 642. Professor Hoxie concludes that the significance of this result is considerably enhanced when it is understood that in the fall of 1911 no general municipal elections took place in what previous study had indicated to be the main strongholds of Socialism, and that more than 85 per cent of these new officeholders were elected in other states which had heretofore returned few or no Socialist officials, and in municipalities new in the Socialist ranks.[2] In the July number of the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW he brings his study up to date by announcing that there are from 1100 to 1200 Socialist officeholders in the various states of the Union.

What the future will bring forth, time alone can tell.

The ideals and activities of the local and national branches of the Socialist party are as different as those of the local and national branches of the Republican and Democratic parties where those organizations engage in local politics. Nationally the Socialist party stands for *principles*, and most of its followers vote its ticket because they believe in the desirability and inevitability of the Socialist coöperative commonwealth. At times it wins many votes for its presidential candidates through those who ally themselves with it because they desire to protest against the old parties. This fall will undoubtedly see many such protesting votes.

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[1] Dr. Cross is assistant professor of economics in the Leland Stanford Jr. University. This paper was read at the Los Angeles Meeting of the National Municipal League.

[2] R. F. Hoxie, "The Socialist Party in the November Elections," *Journal of Political Economy*, vol. 20, p. 205.

Locally the movement stands, not so much for principles, for Socialist doctrines, as for what may be termed "immediate demands," local reforms, a cleaning up of city government, the overthrow of boss and corporation rule. Very frequently the local movement likewise enlists the suffrage of those who are not Socialists, but who are eager for the enactment of local measures for social betterment.

The reform character of the local movement of the Socialists in California is clearly evidenced by the platform which they adopted in the municipal campaign in Long Beach:

> The municipal ownership of all public utilities as soon as possible.
>
> The abolition of the contract system of street work, same to be done by the city through its own department by day labor.
>
> The readjustment of electrical rates to seven cent per kilowatt.
>
> The readjustment of gas rates to ninety cents per thousand cubic feet.
>
> The right of free speech and assemblage.
>
> The building and operation of a municipal bath house.
>
> The readjustment of telephone rates until such a time as public ownership is possible.
>
> The arrangement of a 5-cent carfare with universal transfer good for one hour after issue.
>
> The building of a municipal playground for children.
>
> The encouragement of all capital investments for the promotion of all legitimate amusement devices tending towards city development.
>
> The immediate insistence upon a lower rate of fare between this city and Los Angeles over electric lines.
>
> Equal suffrage to all citizens over twenty-one years of age.
>
> We stand for the strict enforcement of the present liquor ordinance.

It is also shown in another typical platform, that of the Socialists of Daly City, which was as follows:

> Our candidates, unhampered by private domination, will, if elected, do their utmost to put into effect the following program:
>
> All bond issues shall be so arranged that each measure will be voted upon separately.
>
> The minimum wage for city employees shall be $3 per day of eight hours.
>
> In all city work, preference shall be given to local workers at union hours and union wages.
>
> An equitable system of taxation shall be established in place of the burdensome one now in effect.
>
> To the end that the health of the community be safeguarded, strict sanitary measures shall be enforced and a municipal dispensary with free medical attendance established.
>
> Merit and ability—not political pull—shall govern the appointment of all city employees.

In order to encourage both women and men to take part in city government, we shall at all times welcome the free and unrestricted use of the initiative, referendum and recall.

There is nothing so very revolutionary in either of these platforms, or for that matter in any of the socialist platforms that are drafted for use in municipal campaigns.

Another difference to be noted between the national and local Socialist movements is the very important part played by the personality and the reputation of the local candidates in winning the support of the community. Although the Socialists usually vote solely for principle, they do not forget that the ordinary voter does not, and, being acquainted by experience with the arts of the average politician, we find them nominating candidates who can win votes because they are widely and favorably known. It is this that accounts for many of the Socialist victories in municipal campaigns. It is this that accounts for their most significant victory in California, namely, the election of the mayor, one city commissioner and one member of the board of education in Berkeley.

The local movement of the Socialists is similar to the national in that it refuses to combine or work with any other party or organization. It votes the ticket straight, from top to bottom, regardless of the qualifications of the men nominated. If elected they act in office, not as individuals, relying upon their independent judgment, but as representatives of the Socialist organization, at any and all times responsible solely to that organization, and with the ever present probability of their being recalled if their acts do not win the approval of the local Socialist party members. The Socialists in municipal campaigns also stand upon their own platform, which is drafted by the organization in its capacity as the self-appointed representative of the working class, and which is not so shaped, as is frequently the case with other political organizations, that it is a close imitation of that of the leading party.

For the purposes of this discussion we are interested in the Socialist movement only as it concerns the city.

The strength of the Socialist movement in California has increased rapidly since 1908. In that year they cast 28,659 votes. In 1910 their candidate for governor polled 47,819 votes. There is no method of estimating their present following, but data gathered from municipal elections held this spring show a very decided increase over the vote of two years ago, the four cities of Oakland, Los Angeles, San Francisco and Sacramento giving the Socialist candidates over 70,000 votes.

There are many usual and some unusual means by which this increase can be accounted for. The discontent of the people, their dissatisfaction with the old parties, the high cost of living, the fight against machine and corporate influence, the long continued and forceful agitation of the Socialists, the circulation of Socialist periodicals and literature (the *Appeal to Reason* has over 30,000 subscribers in this state), these are some of the more ordinary reasons advanced. A matter of unusual significance was the McNamara trial. The Socialists believed it to be a conspiracy against labor, and resolved to carry the state for Socialism, hoping thereby to gain control of the executive and the judiciary. An active campaign was started, and although the McNamara trial ended in a rather spectacular manner and seriously interfered with the outcome of the Socialist campaign in Los Angeles, nevertheless the propaganda had been started throughout the state, the seed had been sown, tickets had been put up in many localities, and the result was an increased vote of startling proportions.

Thus far, however, there have been but few Socialists elected to office in California.

The most notable victory came in the election, in the spring of 1911, of the mayor, a city commissioner and a member of the board of education in the residential and educational center of Berkeley, a city of about 40,000 population. This gave them two of the five members of the board of commissioners, and two of the five members of the board of education, the Socialist commissioner as chairman of finance becoming a member of that board in accordance with the provisions of the city charter. One of the other members of this board, who was not elected as a Socialist, has lately signified her intention of joining that party, so that to all intents and purposes the Socialists have a majority of the members of the board of education.

In April, 1912, the Socialists of Daly City, a working class suburb of San Francisco with about 3000 population, succeeded in electing the city clerk and three of the five members of the board of trustees, including the mayor. This gave the Socialist majority of the board the power to choose Socialists to fill the two offices of police judge and recorder, and of town marshal. This they proceeded to do, and as a consequence Daly City is at the present time under what practically amounts to a Socialist city government, the only one in the state. The board of trustees appointed as police judge and recorder a woman who by eight votes had failed of election on the Socialist ticket as their candidate for treasurer. So far as I know she is the only woman police judge in the state.

In the late Los Angeles election the discussion of the aqueduct played an important part in the Socialist campaign against the Alexander administration. In that campaign the Socialists claimed, I know not how justly, that plans had been "secretly carried out for years . . . . which, if allowed to be consummated, would result in flowing the waters of the aqueduct upon lands owned and held by some of the most infamous exploiters of land and labor in America" (extract from the Socialist party platform). An investigation was demanded, and three men were chosen by the administration to look into the matter. The Socialists, fearing a "whitewash," initiated an ordinance appointing five citizens as investigators, two of whom were Socialists, the remainder being the three men previously appointed. The Socialists were victorious in carrying through this bit of initiated legislation. This is their only success in Los Angeles, although I have been assured by them that they are able to exercise about as much power out of office, through the democratic provisions of the city charter, as they would in office, and in addition thereto, they are not burdened with the responsibility of administering the affairs of the city.

Other officials elected by the Socialists in the state are briefly as follows: A city commissioner in Santa Cruz; alderman, police judge, school director and two library trustees in Eureka; alderman in San Luis Obispo; alderman in San Bernardino; two school trustees in Huntington Beach, and one each in Sawtelle, Rancho, Sausalito and Neinshaw, all small places; three town officials in Niederland, again unimportant; school trustees in Jefferson township, also unimportant.

It will be noted that the Socialist victories have been, generally speaking, in outlying and unimportant places.

In no locality did the Socialist campaign resolve itself into a contest between Socialism and Capitalism. The campaigns were usually marked by a general discussion of Socialist doctrines, but almost universally the issue was one of immediate demands or projected reforms, a struggle against graft, corruption, the boss and the machine, and in favor of clean government, municipal ownership and other similar non-socialist demands. In no instance did the matter of race enter into the result as it did in Milwaukee where the German element was of such importance. In no place did the struggle between labor and capital, or the attitude of union labor, with the exception of Eureka, exert any influence in the election of Socialist officials. In Los Angeles, however, where a very bitter campaign was waged and the Socialists defeated, although polling over 50,000 votes, the lines were closely drawn between capital and labor. The Socialists expected to carry the city, and now claim that they would have done so had not the confession of the McNamara brothers, coming as it did but four days before the election, swung many votes to the opposition and also kept many from casting their ballots for either party. Eureka is a thoroughly organized union town, and the campaign in that community was waged as a working class fight.

In many instances the reputation and personality of the Socialist candidates, their sane and conservative, though progressive, platforms, as well as the unsatisfactory records of other candidates, were of deciding weight.

Socialist candidates and platforms usually acknowledged, to quote from the Daly City platform, "the inability of a purely local government to accomplish anything material towards the overthrow of capitalism," and consequently advocated such measures of immediate relief as were suited to the needs of each locality. The platforms above quoted are typical as showing what socialism stands for in the municipal campaigns of California.

In Berkeley the victory was due to a very great extent to the magnetic personality of their candidate for mayor. That gentleman had resided in Berkeley for eleven years, was widely known as a clean, sanely progressive leader, a minister and public lecturer, a compelling orator, well educated and capable. He waged a vigorous campaign against the incumbent who was called "a machine man" although his administration of public affairs had been above reproach. The editor of a local paper had not been included in a revision of the so-called "machine" committee, and to "get even" threw the influence of his paper to the Socialists. Their candidate for mayor was elected at the primaries, and immediately went before the people campaigning in behalf of the other Socialist candidates and insisting that the voters give him a working majority in the council. One of the Socialist candidates for the council, a bicycle shop owner, had gotten through the primaries. An independent candidate had announced himself as favorable to the Socialist mayor. Both were elected by an increased majority, as was also the Socialist candidate for the board of education. Twice since then, once at a charter amendment election, and again at a recall election when an attempt was made by a discharged public school superintendent to recall the two Socialist members and the third sympathetic member of the board of education, the voters have shown by increased majorities their confidence in the Socialist administration. In none of these elections was the working class of Berkeley opposed to the middle class or the capitalist class. In fact the wealthier precincts returned just as satisfactory and in some instances more satisfactory majorities than the working class districts. In conversation with the Socialist officials of that city this fact was pointed out to me by them with evident pride. Certainly the Socialist party of Berkeley is not a very revolutionary organization, to be feared by business or the good government forces.

In Daly City the cry of machine, graft and general inefficiency of the incumbents was raised. The latter had also passed an anti-free speech ordinance to which the people objected. The Socialists had no newspaper, but made arrangements to obtain a special edition of the Oakland *World*, a weekly Socialist paper, and for five weeks previous to the election each household was supplied with copies of that paper, two pages of which contained material of local interest. Literature and speakers and a vigorous campaign resulted in the city being captured by the Socialists.

In San Bernardino the Socialist candidate for alderman was elected after having been endorsed by the Democrats. His acts in office have not satisfied the Socialists and his recall is projected. The Socialist candidate for mayor was defeated by only six votes. The results in that city were obtained by a long campaign of education and agitation.

Generally speaking there have been no surprising results from the administration of the Socialist officeholders in this state, as was the case in Milwaukee. This is to be accounted for in the first place by there being so little that needed to be done: secondly by the Socialists usually being so greatly in the minority that nothing could be done: and lastly by the Socialists having been in office for so short a time that they have not been able to get very much done.

Berkeley's Socialist mayor and city commissioner can do very little because they are in the minority: also, because there is little to be done. Berkeley has no saloons, gambling dens or houses of prostitution. It has always had a very clean and efficient administration of city affairs. "Gown" and "Town" have mixed most satisfactorily in all municipal activities. Then too there is little that can be done. All of the public service corporations that supply Berkeley are interurban in character. Street railways, gas, telephone, electricity, water, all are furnished by corporations that also supply Alameda, Oakland and San Francisco. These cities are so bound up with each other in this regard, so closely interrelated as it were, that Berkeley cannot act independently regarding any of these matters. The Socialist officials, however, are preparing plans for a municipal lighting plant and garbage incinerator that appear likely to be adopted. They have also opened the schools in the evenings for the meetings of the citizens, they have aided in the expansion of playgrounds, and at present are looking forward to the time when they will be able to hire a social engineer. The Socialists officials are also handicapped because of lack of funds. The tax rate was limited by the charter to 65 cents but by means of a charter amendment election the Socialists have been able to raise it to $1. As a consequence of the situation which has developed in Berkeley because of the insufficiency of city revenues, the mayor has started an agitation, which is now assuming state wide proportions, looking toward the establishment of home rule in taxation. The board of education has effected a number of minor economies amounting to about $4000 a year, without in any way interfering with the efficiency of the school system.

In Daly City the Socialist board of trustees has reduced the cost of public printing by eliminating the printing of useless copies of public ordinances and documents. It has also saved the small and financially handicapped city over $200 a year in hall rent and janitor services by erecting a rough shack in which it holds its meetings and in which the other city offices are now located. It has also prevented the unnecessary expenditure of money for fire equipment by obtaining from San Francisco, for the asking, a sufficient supply of hose and a fire wagon, which that city had discarded because of the installation of a high pressure system. The former board was preparing to buy these supplies from the manufacturers.

Although Oakland has no Socialist officials the situation in that city is interesting for several reasons. The commission form of government was adopted in Oakland in 1911. The Socialists had a complete ticket in the field, but came off second best, losing by about 1800 votes. The growth of the Socialist movement in that city is shown by the fact that in that election only about 850 persons registered as Socialists. At the presidential primaries this number had increased to approximately 3000. At the present moment the Socialists are attempting the recall of the mayor and the safety and public health commissioner, because of their connection with an anti-free speech fight, and also of the street commissioner on "general principles." They claim that that official is inefficient. This is the first time in the history of the recall that, to use their words, "the Socialists have attempted the recall of capitalist officials." There are some 6000 voters registered for this recall election as Socialists.

For the most part one finds the Socialist officeholder to be clean, uncorruptible, eager to "make good" and eager to administer the affairs of the city in the very best manner possible. One finds them farmers in outlying districts, and workingmen, sometimes ministers, store-keepers and professional men in the cities. Frequently they are not the most capable and efficient administrators, but this criticism applies likewise to all parties. In no place do we need efficient officials more than in our cities and in no place do we get them less frequently.

CONCLUSIONS

1. I have not been discussing the truth or the falsity of the economic or philosophical doctrines of the Socialists. They have not concerned us in this brief survey of conditions in California.

2. I have been discussing the local and not the national Socialist movement. Although both are working towards the same goal, i.e., Socialism, nevertheless the character of the two movements is greatly different. In municipal affairs the Socialists have been more directly brought face to face with current problems—and as all of us realize, responsibility tends to more sober judgment and to conservative as well as to constructive thinking. Thus far this has not been to the same extent true of the national movement.

3. The Socialist party in local politics stands for a reform program, for an extension of city activities and powers, for public ownership, for clean government, and for many other non-Socialist demands; it stands for these things just so long as they are to be carried out by the Socialist party. It

is not so many years ago that the advocacy of a social betterment program was sneered at by the Socialists as "bourgeois reform."

4. "Good government" has nothing to fear from the Socialist movement, because the *immediate* ideals of both are practically the same, although advocated from widely separated angles and propagated by widely different methods. One is a class agitation: the other is not. One hopes to accomplish better conditions for the working class, and thus indirectly for all of society: the other hopes to better the conditions of society as a whole, without laying special emphasis on the interests of any one class. Because of these and other reasons, it is impossible, and it is to be deeply regretted that such is the case, for these two forces working for social betterment to unite.

5. The cause of "efficient government" may have something to lose as the result of the Socialist victories. The latter movement differs from that of the progressive city reformers in that it opposes the commission form of government and also the direct primary.[3] It opposes the first because of the fear of centralized power, and because it believes that democracy means the election of all officials. They seem to want democracy more than they want efficiency. In this connection, however, the Socialists have already exercised their prerogative of being illogical if they so desire, for under the Socialist administration in Milwaukee, a large number of non-Socialist city experts were appointed by the mayor to aid in cleaning up that city. Such may be done elsewhere. The Socialist movement opposes the direct primary because it fears that other parties will obtain control of the Socialist organization just so soon as it becomes strong enough to attract ambitious and self-seeking politicians.

It is also suggested that by making the Socialist office holder directly responsible to the Socialist party organization, rather than to the people as a whole, and thus preventing his acting upon his independent judgment, the cause of efficient government may again be greatly handicapped.

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[3] Not all Socialists oppose the commission form of government.—C. R. W.

THE ACTUAL OPERATION OF WOMAN'S SUFFRAGE IN THE PACIFIC COAST CITIES

BY MRS. CHARLES FARWELL EDSON[1]

Los Angeles

IN ANY discussion of the "Actual Operation of Woman' Suffrage in the Pacific Coast Cities," I find it will be necessary to divide the discussion into two parts—the objective and subjective results of suffrage. for they are both most interesting and most illuminating.

When one considers that democracy itself is more or less of an experiment and that in the history of government and the development of society democracy is in its infancy, how absurd it is to expect any actual results from an experiment in the extension of suffrage that only covers a period of from ten months to three years. The women of Washington were enfranchised less than three years ago, the women of California, October 10, 1911. Great things have happened since—the greatest has happened to the women themselves.

In speaking of the operation of woman suffrage, I am naturally restricted to those cities with which I have the most intimate acquaintance. In

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[1] In an article in the *California Outlook* Mrs. Florence Collins Porter (one of the two women delegates to the National Republican Convention referred to by Mrs. Edson in her paper) had this to say:

"Mrs. Owen Wister, as historian of the National Municipal League, naïvely admitted in her address at the brilliant banquet given to the delegates and guests of the National Municipal League at Hotel Alexandria, that there were no ladies present at the first banquet eighteen years ago. Women have received a wide recognition since then as important factors in municipal reforms and constructive civic work.

"Civic organizations in several large cities sent women delegates to this meeting and many club-women who had attended the biennial in San Francisco came to Los Angeles for the express purpose of being present at the National Municipal League Convention. Even in states where women do not have the franchise they are actively interested and are acknowledged leaders in civic work, and that this is a step towards securing the franchise no one can doubt.

"Very naturally, the women of Los Angeles received words of praise from the visiting members. "They certainly have an unusual insight into municipal affairs," a prominent delegate was overheard to say to another prominent delegate. "If this is due to equal suffrage, I hope other states will follow California's example." Such compliments are usually taken with a grain of salt by the wise woman, but as this one wasn't made as part of a gallant toast at the banquet, or involved in a flattering personal remark, it sounds like a really, truly one. And perhaps it was because California women had to some extent fitted themselves so well for the ballot that they at last received it.

"To a Los Angeles woman has also come a more substantial compliment than the one quoted above. Heretofore, the only woman honored by an elective office in the

Los Angeles, woman's enfranchisement was coincident with the most bitterly fought municipal campaign in the history of the city. The city primaries were held September 26, 1911, Job Harriman, Socialist, receiving 19,800 votes; Mayor Alexander, Good Government, 16,600 votes out of a total of 45,000. Party feeling ran high. Both factions were afraid of the women if enfranchised. Our suffrage majority in Los Angeles was no doubt materially decreased for that reason. Some men supporting Mayor Alexander argued that the women of the laboring class would all register and vote, and as many of their acquaintances were apathetic, they believed it was inexpedient to extend the franchise. Some Socialists argued that the leisure class women were thoroughly organized in their clubs and were used to coöperating for a given end, that the working class women were unorganized, so to allow the women a vote would mean disaster to their cause. However, we did carry Los Angeles by a safe majority.

It was my opinion that women should register as they began to be interested in public questions, but wiser, more practical political methods prevailed and were most successful in influencing thousands of women to register who probably would have taken years in becoming interested in politics. A house to house canvass of registration was started, hundreds of men and women volunteering to become registration clerks, without pay. Booths and registration tables were placed on street corners, entrances to stores and churches, in hotel and theatre lobbies, in the public parks, and no woman could escape. As the campaign waxed hotter, both men and women were made to believe that the very salvation of the city depended upon their voting and getting out their friends. The papers which had most violently fought woman suffrage, now appealed to the women to "save the city." It was plain to be seen that the women's vote would decide the

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National Municipal League was Miss Jane Addams, of Chicago, who has served for several years as vice-president. And now Mrs. Charles Farwell Edson of Los Angeles has been elected as the first woman to serve on the national executive council. Mrs Edson has honestly won this distinction because of the unselfish work she has given for municipal reform. As one of a committee of the Los Angeles County Medical Milk Commission, as chairman of the public health department of the California Federation of Women's Clubs, and also vice-president of the Friday Morning Club, she has been most active in a crusade for better health laws, and especially for pure milk for the city of Los Angeles. She was also one of the leaders in the state in the work for the suffrage amendment. Sufficiently aggressive to press to victory the measures she advocates, brilliant in mind and personality, and with an alertness to grapple with problems presented, Mrs. Edson will be, unquestionably, an influential member of the council. As chairman of a committee whose other members are Mrs. Owen Wister and Mrs. Rudolf Blankenburg, the latter the wife of the mayor of Philadelphia and vice-president of the General Federation of Women's Clubs, and Mr. Woodruff, the secretary of the League, Mrs. Edson will endeavor to bring before that organization the importance of coöperating more closely with the work of the National Municipal League."

election. There was from about October 14, until November 11, when the registration closed, a vast amount of work to do. The result was a registration of 83,284 women in less than a month's time, a most remarkable feat. It seemed that thousands of women became interested who had never dreamed of voting. The Woman's Progressive League, organized at that time for the purpose of electing Mayor Alexander, itself registered over 17,000 women in less than ten days. Schools were established by both sides to instruct the new voters in the method of voting. Election day came, and over 95 per cent of the registered women voted. When you consider that it was an almost forced registration, it makes it doubly remarkable.

There have been four elections in Los Angeles since October 10, 1911, the general municipal election of which I have spoken. The second, an election to annex a strip of land for park purposes. At this election in many parts of the city more women voted than men, three to one. The third, the presidential primary election, held May 14, at which only voters who had stated their affiliation with either the Republican or Democratic parties could vote. This disfranchised for the time being large numbers of women who had registered in October without stating their party affiliations, and did not understand the necessity of re-registering in 1912. Even then, although the vote was very light, women voted in some precincts in the city in larger proportion to their registration than did the men. On May 25th, of this year, a special election was held on initiative and referendary ordinances. There was a consolidation of precincts to reduce the cost of the election, that is, three precincts to one voting place. No notice was sent out with the sample ballot, as to the location of the polls, as is the custom here. This resulted in great confusion, but in spite of it all, many women went miles to vote.

The average vote in this election was about one-third of the registration. I have here a table of twelve precincts that are typical of different sections of the city. These twelve precincts were consolidated in four voting places:

Municipal election, May 28, 1912

COMBINED PRECINCT NUMBER	COMPOSED OF PRECINCT NUMBERS	REGISTRY, 1912			VOTE, MAY 28, 1912		
		Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
5	10, 11, 12	690	510	1200	300	119	419
42	57, 58, 58	753	583	1336	317	177	484
68	336, 337, 340	1029	219	1248	224	27	251
85	162, 448, 449	510	660	1170	168	156	326

Number 68 is a purely working man's district, and the total vote was less than one-fifth of the registration. Probably because this is a Socialist district. Very few women are registered in these three precincts, only 219 out of 1248, and only 27 of these voted.

Number 42 is a typical rooming house district, near Court House, the women of these precincts voting 33⅓ per cent of their registration and the men about 45 per cent.

Number 5 and number 85 are both good residential parts of the city, at extreme distances from each other. In number 5 there are 1200 registered voters, women being about 40 per cent. In this election, one-third of the total registration was voted, and one-third of these were women's votes. In 85, the total registration was 1170, 60 per cent was woman's registration. In this election a little over a 40 per cent vote was polled and 45 per cent were women's votes.

The average registration of women through the residential part of the city is 40 per cent. In some few instances, as high as 55 and 60 per cent of the whole registration. A careful study of registration and voting shows that women are voting up to their registration strength fully as well as men, especially in the uninteresting elections where there is no personal element involved.

We have no segregated vice district in Los Angeles, so, if we have that great terror of the anti-suffragist, the "bad woman," she is so generally scattered that no one knows who she is or whether or not she votes. We have never heard of her as a political factor anywhere in California.

In many of the smaller cities of California, municipal elections were held April 9. The results were very interesting, as many of the cities had before them the local prohibition of saloons as a vital issue. Many towns and cities voted "wet," many "dry."

Arcadia, for many years the home of the sporting elements, voted "dry," 95 per cent of all possible voters voting.

Newport remained "wet," the vote being 172 for saloons, 69 against, of the total vote of 257, 106 were cast by women.

Pool rooms in many places were voted non-existent, but saloons allowed to stay. This might seem strange unless one knew that pool rooms in small towns are frequently "blind pigs," a place for the illicit sale of liquor and a trap for boys. In saloons, minors are not allowed.

In Elsinore, a small town in San Diego County, there was a bitterly contested election on the saloon question. Only 6 persons failed to vote—3 men who were ill, and 3 women. It rained all day. Prohibition was defeated 3 to 2.

It was said that 60 towns voted on the saloon question on the ninth of April. I have only been able to get the report of 37. Of these, 20 voted "wet" and 17 voted "dry," some majorities being as small as two votes.

In Venice was the hardest fought and most spectacular election. This election was for city trustees, one faction wishing to keep Venice as it is, a "one man" town, and the other side believing that one man power leads to injustice and unfairness, opposed strongly, one of the clear issues being a less wide open town. The faction in favor of stricter regulation was defeated. Women remained at the polls and worked in the pouring rain all day. Out of 1151 votes cast, 700 were women's votes. A woman was defeated as city trustee by a small vote. Local circumstances were such that the election was not typical, but showed that women can conduct a hard fought campaign, challenging votes and doing the usual things that are considered difficult and unpleasant, with dignity and ability. Social position was forgotten, women of social distinction working all day long with working girls, from the opening of the polls to the closing, the one desire of all being the election of their respective candidates.

In every town where city beautification, or street or park improvement was an issue, women voted overwhelmingly for them.

In Redondo Beach the women outvoted the men 3 to 2. In spite of this, a woman was defeated for city treasurer.

At the general municipal election in Los Angeles, held in December, the radical faction of the Prohibition party proposed an initiative ordinance prohibiting the manufacture, sale, and giving away of malt, spirituous or vinous liquors in Los Angeles. The ordinance did not have the support of the temperance people who had done the most to do away with the ills attendant on the sale of liquor. The Prohibitionists seemed to take it for granted that women were interested solely in the prohibition of the sale of liquor and were determined to force women to vote upon that issue at the very first opportunity. It was even said that the saloon element themselves aided in circulating the petition to get the requisite number of names, believing two things: first that the ordinance was so extreme it would defeat itself because of the impossibility of its enforcement, and second, because they wished to get the vote on this question before the women were largely registered. The vote was a surprise to both sides—"dry" 32,000; "wet" 88,000. Total vote cast for ordinance 120,000. The total vote cast for mayor was 137,000. The number of women voting at the election was between 75,000 and 80,000. If every "dry" vote had been a woman's, there were still about 45,000 who voted "wet." This shows the discrimination used by the women in a matter that was supposed to be the one they would be most rabid in attacking. It was really a vote of confidence in the fairness of our present regulations and the efficiency of their enforcement.

In nearly all the "wet" and "dry" elections, the local saloon situation is so complicated with other issues, that it is difficult to make an accurate analysis.

Letters from Sacramento state that at the presidential primary and city primary, a trifle of over 40 per cent of registered women voted. It was noted that a much smaller per cent of women voted in the "dive," or lower class ward, than in the better residential parts of the city.

In San Francisco, the women's registration up to May 14 had been less than 27,000, the men's 100,000, the laboring class women hardly registering at all. This is not the women's fault altogether. The attitude of San Franciso towards all suffrage is very different from ours in the south. In San Francisco the politicians make no effort to make registration easy. Voters have to go to inaccessible places to register. There you have to go to the registration booth or clerk. Here in the south, it comes to you, with the expected result of awakened civic interest. Organizers are now at work among the working women of San Francisco, urging them to register and take up their civic responsibilities for their own protection and for the strength of their class.

In a municipal election for the voting of $5,000,000 bonds for a civic center, the women of San Francisco voted up to 90 per cent of their registration. The men voted under 50 per cent of theirs.

In San Francisco's vice district, 27 women registered who are known to be prostitutes. Of course, there is no means of knowing the registration of clandestine prostitutes. Out of a registration of 27,000 they are a negligible quantity. However, to be really consistent in our belief in democracy, there seems no reason to congratulate ourselves upon this fact, as there is no class of women who so need self-protection from the exploitation of society.

Women have seldom been candidates for political offices. In a few instances they have been candidates for city trustees, city treasurer, city clerk and for school trustees. No woman was elected to any of the first three offices, but many as school trustees, an office to which they have been eligible for years.

From the above evidence, it is apparent that women do not vote for a woman just because she is a woman. They may prefer a woman if she is the best person for the place, but the prejudice against women as political administrators is not entirely past, but will be in a few years when women have further proven their fitness for political positions. Many women have been appointed to places of power and responsibility, both in political positions and semi-civic capacities.

They have more than made good.

California elected two women to the national Republical convention. Women served upon the state and county executive committees during the primary campaign. Women were a little backward about taking a definite partisan stand during our presidential primary campaign. From all indications, three things are apparent. Women are more generally interested in municipal and civic affairs than in political partisanship. The national government and its problems look difficult, but the city is the home and its problems press constantly for solution. The city is more personal and less complex. We will grow to these larger problems, but they seem very remote now.

Another mooted question seems settled by the California women's vote. Are women conservative or radical? They are neither. Women know that they owe nothing to the "stand pat" reactionary elements of society, and that the hope of the future is not with them. Extreme radicalism rather frightens them and they do not care to embrace anything so untried, although intellectually alluring. So, by overwhelming majorities, whenever given an opportunity, women have declared in favor of progressiveism, the safe middle ground.

California has two women on the state board of charities and correction, and a woman as one of the state directors of Exposition Park.

Women have been appointed as city clerks where vacancies had occurred, but were superseded by men at the next election. Three women were appointed on the charter revision committee of Los Angeles, but were not eligible as freeholders on account of the state law which requires that freeholders must have been qualified electors for five years previously. However, we were invited to continue our relations with the board in an advisory capacity. Many of the questions pertaining to housing, health, playgrounds, and parks were referred to us.

We heard a great deal during the suffrage campaign about the "dirty pool of politics." We California women know nothing of such a place. Our California men, with real chivalry, cleaned up our state before we invited ourselves to participate in political life. We would never have had the ballot otherwise, for under the old political régime, woman suffrage would have been fraudulently counted out.

It behooves all women fighting for suffrage to join hands with the men of their states and cities in fighting their common foe—special privilege—which is at the base of all misgovernment everywhere.

Every courtesy has been shown women at the polls and in all public offices. One does not now seem to be a nuisance or an intruder, but public officials are now anxious to serve us.

When the electorate was almost doubled by the addition of so many new voters, it necessitated doubling the voting places. A new departure was made in using churches and school houses, and in our last Los Angeles election, forty-four school houses were used and eight churches.

This is where the subjective result joins with the practical objective result. It takes little imagination to see what a splendid lesson in citizenship it is for a child to see both father and mother going to his school house to cast their votes together for the up-building of the nation: Equal in the eyes of the state and, of course, absolutely changing the status of women in the eyes of the children of the country.

There has been no confusion at the polls. No arrests have been made during election days at the polls. The women voted even more rapidly than the men, taking their places in line and voting in turn. Election officers reported fewer women's ballots returned that were spoiled and fewer thrown out because of errors. In recent elections they have served as election officers with ability and dignity.

Los Angeles has two women police officers whose business is primarily the protection of young girls. They visit picture shows and dance halls and are a decided addition to our police force. Their business being not to arrest for crime but to prevent crime.

Women have taken a large interest in the care of the insane, especially in those who are convalescent. They sit with the lunacy commission, and eighty persons have been placed in private care who would otherwise have been sent to a public insane asylum.

Changes have been made in reformatories and asylums, not by scandalous disclosures but because intelligent, careful women had made thorough investigation and unfit heads of institutions knew enough to resign because there was power back of these investigations.

You will no doubt say that the ballot brings grave responsibilities. How are the women fitting themselves for them?

In Los Angeles, the Woman's City Club is one answer. It came into being in May, 1911, primarily to help suffrage and to prepare women for it. It was formed on the exact lines of the Men's City Club. It almost doubled its membership monthly until within six months it had a membership of one thousand women, meeting weekly at luncheon, discussing every civic, economic and political subject before the people of the city and the state.

Men have learned that they cannot go to the Woman's City Club and talk platitudes, as "What a fine body of women I see before me." They always get a most disconcerting merry laugh that brings the poor unfortunate speaker to a realization that the women expect the real thing and not empty flattery.

All of the women's clubs now have strong public affairs or civic sections, even in the smallest towns. Lecture courses have been given them on the technique of government.

The Woman's Progressive League, which organized ninety-five precincts, with captains, lieutenants and a thorough working force in less than three weeks during the mayoralty campaign, has reorganized into a non-partisan organization and is now busy educating women how to use their new power effectively; also how to perfect a precinct and assembly district organization to control legislation in the interest of women and children.

Through the powerful State Federation of Women's Clubs, that has over 25,000 members and 318 individual clubs, legislation will be directed this coming session of the legislature to insure the passage of the following bills that have received the official endorsement of the state convention held last May: Equal guardianship of children; raising the age of consent to the age of legal majority, eighteen years in this state; some changes in the community property laws; a law to provide for a certificate of freedom from venereal diseases in their infective stages for all applicants for marriage licenses; a law to eradicate tuberculous cattle from the dairy herds of the state; an industrial home for women and a minimum wage commission.

These are the most important measures that California women will instruct their legislators to make into the organic law of the state.

In San Francisco the organized bodies of women have been of great help to the authorities in aiding the prosecution of offenders against the white slave traffic laws of the nation.

Except in a very few instances, women have not served as jurors yet, as there is a difference of opinion among legal authorities as to their right to do so. It will require an act of the legislature, which will be passed at this coming session.

Man's attitude towards woman is one of the utmost respect and consideration everywhere. They seem as proud of our political equality as we are ourselves. Many a doubting Thomas has become our enthusiastic supporter. The psychology of this part of the question is most interesting and is twofold: first, men do not really admire servile women. It is flattering for them to know that women, no matter how free, are just as devoted as ever. Second, women have found out that power brings no decrease in courtesy. It is a great joy for us to stand and look man full in the face, his co-worker and equal, and men like it as much as we do.

Our dear friends, the anti-suffragists, prophesied all manner of evil to the home. Inharmony was to be the general rule. Fortunately this has not been realized. Woman suffrage has meant much in many households, especially where there are childrren. Husbands and wives now discuss political questions before the children. They absorb this knowledge and it creates an early interest in government and in politics. It is not unusual to find the most divergent opinions held by husband and wife. One mother of three sons told me that her husband and two sons voted one way, and she and the younger one another. All was done after thorough good natured discussion and with entire mutual respect.

Women high school teachers say the change in the attitude of boys to them has been great. The following letter from Miss Putnam, vice principal of Manual Arts High School, is typical of many I have received:

> Our teachers feel that the granting of suffrage has made a decided difference in the attitude of students. Strangely enough, the great change has been on the part of the boys. They listen far more to the opinion of the girls on civic and political questions, and feel that the woman teacher's opinion now has equal weight with that of the man teacher.
>
> This, I feel, is of great value, for now the woman's view point will be respected and the coming citizens will have the benefit of hearing and respecting all sorts of opinons. The girls are feeling that it is worth while to know the things about which they can later express an opinion with the ballot.

Girls are taking a greater interest in their "civics" and are now debating political questions with the boys just as if it had always been the custom.

The women of California will never be spectacular in their political work—we do not have to be. Our men see things here without our having to resort to clubs as seems to be necessary in other parts of the world.

Probably more tolerance is being shown women's opinion than ever before. Even dinner parties are a pleasure. Conversation is real. Men take up politics as naturally with us as they would at the club with their friends. Our point of view means something.

The anti-suffragists (who by the way, have registered and are among our best citizens) prophesied all manner of fatal things, the "biological change" being the worst. It is too soon for that to be apparent, but other great changes have taken place that have been glorious. Woman now regards herself as a real part of life. The whole world is hers! It is as if a part had been fenced off and she had never hoped to be allowed in it, but now the fence is gone and she finds a great joy in a new life, new duties, new studies and new power. She may meet with great discouragement. This new weapon may not bring all the good for mankind that she so eagerly hopes for, and for which she is working so hard. It is not being used by her for personal ambition or for private gain.

Best of all, something has happened within herself—a great self-respect—a feeling of honor for herself and for her sex. No more treated as a person to be done for, but allowed to do for herself, to make her own mistakes and to grow strong and experienced through making them, to think her own thoughts, and to express these thoughts, right or wrong, in the policy of her state.

When all is said and done, why should we try to justify the granting of the ballot to women by its results? It is a right in a country that claims to be a democracy. It makes no difference really whether we use the ballot rightly or wrongly. Many men said, "I would be in favor of woman suffrage if I were sure it would make things better." What impertinence! There are so many standards of what is "good" in government that women would have a difficult task in pleasing all. We vote to please ourselves—to express our convictions as to the men and measures by which we wish to be governed. We have found that we do not exist to be well governed, but that government exists solely to make living together possible. We are as interested in solving that problem well as anyone. We are mere amateurs in politics. We are hardly more than mere amateurs in life, but life is unfolding before us more fully and we are a part of the whole of it, and the women of California hope that their political life will be such that the women of America and the world will find their entrance into political equality made easier.

HOW THE CHICAGO AND CLEVELAND STREET RAILWAY SETTLEMENTS ARE WORKING OUT[1]

BY DR. DELOS F. WILCOX

New York[2]

THERE are many types of street railway franchises in operation in the United States, but the only two cities which have thus far worked out general street railway settlements of national importance and national interest are Chicago and Cleveland. Chicago has an area of about 190 square miles and a population of 2,185,000, according to the last census, or nearly seven times the population of Los Angeles. Cleveland is a much smaller city, having only a little over 40 square miles of area and a population of 560,000 in 1910. The two cities may be compared from a street railway standpoint by stating that the total number of passengers carried on the surface street car lines in Chicago is almost 600,000,000 a year, while in Cleveland the number is a little more than 200,000,000. The larger number of riders in Cleveland in proportion to population is accounted for partly by the fact that the elevated roads in Chicago handle a large part of the local passenger traffic, and partly by the fact that in Cleveland traffic has been stimulated by the lower fares. The relative magnitude of the two cities from the street railway standpoint may also be seen from the fact that the recognized capital value of the Chicago systems on February 1, 1912, was about $127,500,000, as against about $24,500,000 for the Cleveland property as of February 29, 1912.

The Chicago settlement ordinances have been in operation for a little more than five years and the Cleveland ordinance for a little more than two years. The practical administration of the Chicago ordinances has been under the direct supervision of Bion J. Arnold, who, aside from the Hon. Walter L. Fisher, was the chief factor in the original negotiations. The administration of the Cleveland ordinance was for the first two years in the hands of a stranger. Both Tom L. Johnson and Judge Robert W. Tayler, the two men most responsible for the Cleveland settlement, died soon after the ordinance went into effect. Since January 1, 1912, however, the administration of the ordinance has been in the hands of Newton D. Baker, now mayor of Cleveland, and Peter Witt, city street railroad commissioner, both of whom were trusted lieutenants of Johnson.

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[1] This paper and that of Mr. Peters, on "A Suggested Sliding Scale of Dividends for Street Railways, Determined by Quality of Service," were read at the Los Angeles meeting of the National Municipal League, together with two other papers on "State vs. Municipal Regulation of Public Utilities," by John M. Eshleman, president of the railroad commission of California, and Lewis R. Works, formerly chairman of the board of public utilities of Los Angeles, which will be published in the January issue of the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW.—EDITOR.

[2] Franchise expert of the public service commission No. 1 of New York.

The Chicago ordinances were the outgrowth of many years of financial exploitation, political corruption, intolerable service, stubbornly contested litigation and prolonged public agitation almost unparalleled in the history of American cities. During the preliminary period the people of Chicago became converted to the principle of municipal ownership; but found themselves so entangled in constitutional and statutory restrictions, so lost in administrative chaos, and so handicapped by the fag ends of unexpired privileges, that the great, rich city of Chicago could not, absolutely could not, buy up the antiquated junk which passed for a street railway system, and itself undertake to rehabilitate and build up a transportation utility worthy of a progressive city. The city had statutory authority to acquire and operate street railways, but as finally interpreted by the supreme court of Illinois, this authority was subject to financial conditions which the city could not possibly fulfill. In other words, one law gave the city powers which other laws prevented it from exercising. On the other side the franchises were expiring and in a notable decision the United States supreme court definitely denied the companies' most important claims. Yet the companies were in possession of the streets, and the railways, wretched as they were, had to keep going.

A great city of two million people clamored angrily and persistently to be carried in decent cars at a reasonable speed. The great issue was better service, and municipal ownership as a means to get it. The deadlock could not continue. Out of these impossible conditions strong men fashioned a compromise and drove it through. The city was unable legally and financially to get immediate municipal ownership, but it could not postpone any longer the immediate rehabilitation of the system and the service. The surface street railways of Chicago, barring certain comparatively unimportant outlying lines, were operated by two companies, which served separate districts, but had access in common to the business heart of the city. The settlement ordinances applied to both companies.

To smooth the way for municipal ownership, the existing properties were appraised and the value was written down in a book at the round figure of $50,000,000—$29,000,000 for one system and $21,000,000 for another. It was agreed that the new capital required for the reconstruction, reëquipment and extension of the lines should also be written down in the book from time to time and added to the original valuation. The sum as shown was to be the purchase price. and the city would have the option at the end of any period of six months to walk up to the counter, lay down the price, and walk off with the goods. All the uncertainties of future appraisals, litigation, corporate resistance and complex disputes were wiped out. The purchase price was fixed. City money, whenever it was forthcoming, would talk.

This particular option, however, would not be effective during the first period of twenty years, except for municipal operation, although if the city itself could not take over the property for municipal operation, it could organize a licensee company limited to a 5 per cent profit, and the latter could take over the street railways to operate them as trustee for the city's benefit, by paying the same purchase price. Moreover the city could designate as its licensee any properly authorized new company, not limited as to profits, and in that case the licensee could take over the property by paying the purchase price plus a bonus of 20 per cent. After twenty years this bonus would not be required. In the meantime, the roads were to be rebuilt and reëquipped and not less than a specified minimum mileage of extensions was to be added each year. A board of supervising engineers, consisting of Mr. Arnold as chief engineer and chairman, a representative of the city, and a representative of the company in each case, was established, principally for the purpose of supervising the work of rehabilitation, certifying additions to capital, and determining what expenditures should be charged to the various accounts. On the companies' actual expenditures for capital account, they were to be allowed certain additional amounts —10 per cent for contractor's profit and 5 per cent for brokerage. Moreover, for the three year period fixed as the period of "immediate rehabilitation" 70 per cent of gross receipts was arbitrarily set aside for operating expenses and it was provided that anything spent for renewals during this three-year period in excess of what might be available for that purpose out of this 70 per cent, should be added to capital. Street railway fares were fixed at 5 cents for adults and 3 cents for children between seven and twelve years of age. Children under seven properly attended, were to be carried free. Except in the downtown business district, comprising an area of about two-thirds of a square mile, free transfers were to be given that would enable a passenger to ride from any point on either system to any other point on either system, not involving a return trip. Through routes were to be operated over both systems as listed in the ordinances. The companies were to be allowed 5 per cent interest on the recognized capital value or purchase price as written down in the book. This allowance was to come after operating expenses, including maintenance, renewals, accident reserve and taxes. Specific percentages of revenues, subject to modification by the board of supervising engineers, were to be set aside to insure the upkeep of the property to the highest practicable standard of efficiency.

After the companies had withdrawn their 5 per cent return on capital, the net profits were to be divided in the ratio of 55 per cent to the city and 45 per cent to the companies. It was stipulated that the city's share of the profits should be placed in a fund for the purchase and construction of street railways. The expenses of the board of supervising engineers were to be charged to capital account during the three year period of "immediate rehabilitation," and thereafter to operating expenses. Mr. Arnold's salary as chairman of the board was fixed at $15,000 a year, and he was allowed $15,000 a year additional as chief engineer during the period of reconstruction. In case the companies failed to comply with the provisions of the ordinances for a period of three months exclusive of time during which, without their connivance, they were delayed or interfered with by unavoidable accidents, labor strikes or court orders, their rights under the ordinances might be forfeited, but in any such case the rights of mortgagees to recover by foreclosure up to the full value of the property as reflected in the purchase price, were not to be affected. In other words, forfeiture would run against the operating companies, but not against their bondholders unless and to the extent that bonds had been issued in excess of the value of the property.

How has this scheme worked? Chicago has got a physically reconstructed, high-grade street railway system. Practically all the small outlying lines have been brought into the scheme and are now being operated by one or the other of the two companies. This means a universal 5-cent fare for adults and free transfers throughout the city, except in the downtown business district. This limitation of the transfer privilege was designed to prevent abuses. It operates to the inconvenience of a number of people who have to walk from a block or two to perhaps a third of a mile to reach their downtown destination, or else pay a second fare. The through route provisions of the ordinances have not yet been worked out satisfactorily, largely as a result of the jealousies and conflicts of interest of the two companies. Only 9 per cent of the cars entering the business district are through-routed, with the result that a passenger desiring to pass through the heart of the city must submit to considerable delay in waiting for a through car or in making a detour by transfer around the business district. or must change companies and pay a second fare. Downtown traffic is badly congested, partly by reason of the fact that 91 per cent of the cars switch back or go around short single track loops, crossing and recrossing each other's routes with resultant confusion and delay. Service is generally good so far as physical equipment is concerned, but there are serious complaints of overcrowding during the rush hours. No trailers are used.

The original purchase price, including the smaller properties since brought under the ordinances, was $55,775,000. On February 1, 1912, after five years, their aggregate purchase price was $127,492,398.37, an increase of 128 per cent. During the five years period the companies had received about $22,000,000 as interest on their investment, $6,432,183 as their 45 per cent of net profits, and about $9,000,000 as their percentages of profits on rehabilitation, a total of approximately $37,500,000 or the equivalent of 8.5 per cent per annum on their investment as shown by the purchase price. During this same period taxes paid to the city and other public bodies amounted to about $4,800,000 and the city's share of profits amounted to $7,804,000.

The Chicago settlement ordinances are a great constructive work of municipal statesmanship. They are the practical outcome of the first big battle in this country to recover for a great city the control of its streets. In the light of Chicago's experience, many other battles will be fought before the cities of America have attained the complete ownership and control of their highways, which is, in my opinion, a prerequisite to the full realization of civic democracy, the assumption by the city of the self-control necessary to transform the cities in which a few of us now grow rich and many of us grow poor into cities in which we all may *live a full and free life.*

Certain serious mistakes in Chicago's policy have been revealed as the result of five years' experience. The possibility of municipalization was intended as a check upon the companies. In fact these ordinances were represented as giving them one last chance to make good as servants of the people, the sword of municipal ownership being suspended at all times above their bowed necks by a slender thread. In five years' time that slender thread has grown mighty stout, until timid capital all over the country is clamoring for a chance to bend its neck under a sword suspended by that kind of a string. While the city has been accumulating a purchase fund of about $8,000,000, the purchase price of the properties has *increased* more than $70,000,000, and the companies have been making more than 8 per cent on that price. At this rate, Chicago will not be likely to continue long to regard as of great practical value, the simple announcement of its famous contracts: "Just walk up with the money and you can walk off with the street railways."

The mistakes of the Chicago ordinances are mainly three:

1. They permanently capitalize many millions of dollars of franchise values, superseded properties, city pavements and construction profits, which never should be capitalized at all except as a last resort, and in that case should be amortized out of earnings as a first charge after the payment of bare interest rates on the investment. It is impossible to tell from the figures available just how much of the present purchase price of the Chicago street railways represents *bona fide* present value of tangible property. I believe, however, that at least 20 per cent or 25 per cent of the purchase price represents elements that never should be permanently capitalized. In fact, it is fairly certain that in the process of rehabilitation, more *dead capital* has been added to the account than the entire accumulations of the city's purchase fund.

2. The second mistake in the Chicago ordinances is their failure to provide for the investment of the city's purchase fund, in the securities of the

street railway system. While the companies are pouring new millions of capital into car lines and getting 5 per cent brokerage and 5 per cent a year as a minimum return, the improvident city puts its money in the bank and gets $2\frac{1}{4}$ per cent interest on it.

3. The third serious mistake of the Chicago plan is the indefinite and inadequate provision for the permanent supervision of service by the board of supervising engineers after the expiration of the reconstruction period. The ordinances are not very clear on this point, but the board is unquestionably very limited in its initiatory jurisdiction over service matters.

Turning to Cleveland, we find a franchise settlement of another type. There, as in Chicago, the ordinance finally adopted was the outgrowth of years of litigation and political struggle. In Cleveland, however, the service had not been so badly neglected and the corrupting activities of the street railway interests had not been so bold and brutal. The main struggle in Cleveland was for lower fares, with municipal ownership as soon as conservative Ohio would permit it. Tom Johnson, as a practical railway man and a radical civic statesman combined, asserted the practicability of 3-cent fares, and pending the working out of the municipal ownership program, demanded politically that the street railway company of Cleveland should be deprived of its monoply profits. Unable to attain his purpose by negotiation, he did not hesitate to establish a competing line under franchises practically granted by himself to himself as trustee for the public. My time does not permit of a review of Johnson's long fight. The settlement known as the Tayler ordinance was finally put through in the face of Mr. Johnson's personal opposition and went into effect March 1, 1910. Under this settlement the value of the property was agreed upon, as in Chicago, and provision was made for additions to capital account from time to time, subject to the city's approval. As yet Cleveland does not enjoy even the theoretical right to own and operate street railways, but looking to the future, the ordinance reserves to the city the right, when it is legally competent, to take over the property at the recognized capital value plus a bonus of 10 per cent on the portion of that value not represented by bonds.

The city is also authorized to designate a licensee company which will be permitted to acquire the property at the same price on condition that it will agree to accept a smaller return by at least one-fourth of 1 per cent on the portion of the capital value represented by capital stock than the original company is at the time entitled to receive. The original company, however, must be allowed to submit a bid before a licensee is designated, and no licensee may be designated unless it underbids the original company. At the expiration of the franchise or any renewal of it, the bonus will not be required as a part of the purchase price.

Aside from the provisions for purchase, the main idea of this ordinance is that the company shall receive a fixed rate of return upon its investment, and all surplus profits shall be prevented by an automatic readjustment of fares in accordance with a detailed schedule in the ordinance itself, which provides for a range between a maximum rate of 4 cents cash fare, seven tickets for a quarter, and 1 cent for a transfer, without rebate, to a minimum rate of 2 cents cash fare, 1 cent for a transfer and 1 cent rebate when the transfer is used. Between these extremes are eight intermediate variations in the rates. When the ordinance went into effect, the rate was to be 3 cents cash fare, 1 cent for a transfer and no rebate. A certain fund was established to operate as the financial pulse of the street railway system. This fund was started off at $500,000 and it was provided that whenever the fund increased beyond $700,000, the fares should automatically be lowered, and whenever the fund went below $300,000, the fares should be raised. In case of dispute between the city and the company about the necessity of a change of fare other than by this automatic arrangement the matter was to be submitted to arbitration. But in case the city ever let the franchise come within fifteen years of expiration, the company would be entitled to charge the maximum rate provided for in the schedule, and apply all surplus profits to a reduction of capital, which would, in case of subsequent purchase by the city, go to reduce the purchase price.

The company was allowed a fixed amount, 11½ cents per active car mile of motor cars and 60 per cent as much per car mile for trailers, for operating expense, and also a fixed amount per car mile for maintenance, renewals and depreciation. This latter allowance varies with the season, but averages about 5 cents per car mile. These allowances may be changed by agreement or by arbitration. The company is allowed to withdraw each year from the interest fund a sum equal to 6 per cent on its authorized capital stock and actual interest charges not exceeding 6 per cent on its bonds. New stocks and bonds may be issued, but unless approved by the city, they do not become a part of capital value.

The city appoints a street railroad commissioner whose offices and supplies are furnished and whose expenses and salary are paid by the company as an operating expense. The amount of the commissioner's salary is limited to $12,000 a year. The present commissioner gets $7500, the same as the heads of other city departments. The expenditures for salaries of the commissioner and his assistants are limited to 1 per cent of the company's "operating" allowance in any one month, except that in checking construction accounts, the commissioner may spend also not exceeding 1 per cent of the estimated cost of the proposed additions, extensions and betterments. The commissioner is the technical adviser of the city council. He has very little ultimate authority of his own except in the way of examination into the company's accounts and practices. Backed by the city council, however, he has absolute control of car schedules and service. Nearly every other question of dispute between the city and the company may be referred to arbitration.

On March 1, 1910, the new plan started off with 3-cent cash fares and a penny for a transfer with no rebate. The company has spent more than the ordinance allowance both for operation and for renewals; but the overdrafts in these funds, until authorized by the city or by arbitrators, do not affect the interest fund, which determines the fare. On June 1, 1911, the interest fund having passed the $700,000 mark, the fare was reduced one notch to 3 cents with penny-for-a-transfer and a penny-rebate. That is practically 3 cents straight, as the thrifty Clevelanders do not buy transfers unless they are sure of using them, in which case they get their money back. A passenger may buy five tickets for 15 cents, but unless he does buy tickets, he must present the exact change, 3 pennies for one ride, or 6 cents for two, or the company will keep his nickel. In practice a little more than 1 per cent of the rides are at the nickel rate. From June 1, 1911, to the present time, the 3-cent fare has been maintained. This is in spite of a deficit in the operating and renewal funds. For a period of eight months in 1911, the city allowed the company an extra cent per car mile for operation. Otherwise the allowances have been as set forth in the ordinance. During the first year the company spent and took about $199,000 more than the gross receipts and during the second year about $362,000, making the gross deficit for the two years about $561,000. That is practically equivalent to the penny-for-a-transfer charge for one year. It should also be noted that the city fare is maintained to the suburb of East Cleveland under an old franchise requirement at a heavy annual loss, estimated by the city at not less than $300,000. In Cleveland, when tracks, cars, etc., are replaced, their full original cost is charged to maintenance, while in Chicago only the original appraised value is so charged.

Cleveland is getting fair service at a 3-cent rate. It may be that the increase in traffic will overcome the deficits thus far accrued. The city street railroad commissioner has ordered 100 new 55 feet inside measurement trailer cars to cut down operating expenses and relieve the rush hour traffic. Gross receipts in April, 1912, were about $4000 greater than in April, 1911, in spite of the lower rate of fare which represented a loss of approximately $50,000 revenue. In Cleveland, the city has the right to designate and order improvements to the amount of $2,500,000, which are to be made this year and next. Extensions, betterments and improvements generally may be ordered by the city, and the company must make them, if it can, acting in good faith, secure the funds, unless it claims that the proposed expenditures will impair the future ability of the property to earn the stipulated return on investment. In that case the matter goes to arbitration. The city cannot, however, propose any improvements after it has let the franchise come within fifteen years of expiration. Improvements proposed by the company may be made if approved by the city.

Cleveland has made the same mistake as Chicago in permanently capitalizing franchise and pavement value, and making no provision for reduction of capital, except during the fifteen year period prior to the expiration of the franchise. The people are being saved a lot of money. The company's motive for economy is destroyed, but thus far expenditures are being pretty well held in check by the arbitrary provisions of the ordinance and the supervising alertness of the city commissioner and the city council. It is reasonably certain that in spite of its low fare and no profits, Cleveland will not have any harder time than Chicago in buying out the local street railway system.

The experience of the two cities points to one conclusion, namely, that if municipalization is to be either actual or potential, all franchise values and superseded and imaginary property must be wiped out of the permanent capital account. If this is done and a city wishes to municipalize, it can do so by requiring the property to pay for itself out of earnings. The increased safety of the investment will alone pretty nearly supply the amortization fund without any higher fares. This seems to be the only practicable plan of municipalization that does not involve the assumption by the city of enormous additional debts.

SHORT ARTICLES

CIVIL SERVICE REFORM AT LOS ANGELES

CIVIL service reform took a front position at the Los Angeles meeting of the National Municipal League and held it throughout the various sessions. This was in part due to the local situation. Los Angeles had succeeded in securing honest municipal government, and a large measure of democratic government. What they wished to learn from the League was the methods to be adopted to secure in addition efficient municipal government. The civil service reformers there present had the most definite and concrete proposition to submit for securing efficiency in addition to honesty. This was the plan for the application of the merit system for the selection of municipal experts at the head of all the operating departments of city government as embodied in the draft of the report of the joint committee of the League and the National Civil Service Reform League[1] upon the selection and retention of experts in municipal affairs.

President Foulke had drafted his annual address on "Expert City Management"[2] with the report of this committee in mind. It brilliantly and effectively reinforced and emphasized its conclusions and formed the keynote of the meeting. Further to emphasize the importance of the merit system as an instrument in securing efficiency, Elliot H. Goodwin, the secretary of the National Civil Service Reform League read a paper on "The Need for an Adequate Civil Service Law," in which the emphasis was laid on the word "adequate." Whether one's point of view is free city government, honest city government, efficient city government, non-partisan city government, or all of these combined, there is no one, Mr. Goodwin contended, who will attempt to dispute the axiom that civil service reform is fundamental to them all.

The most carefully devised non-partisan election law cannot prevent the corruption of the electorate with the spoils of office; the most simple and ingenious organization of city government cannot bring efficiency to the administrative body through the arteries and veins of which runs the poison of the spoils system.

Yet some have seemingly tried to maintain that the simplified and businesslike form of city government known as city government by commission obviates, or at least lessens, the necessity for the merit system. On the one hand they argue the people will be quicker to see the abuse of public office for private and partisan gain and possess the power of quick punishment, on the other, that the officers possessed of this great power and commensurate responsibility should be allowed a free hand in the choice of tools with which to accomplish results. There is something in this argument which certainly appeals, but it looks at the question from one side only. The concentration of power involves a like concentration of patronage. Hand in hand with the increase in responsibility has gone the increased ability and temptation to misuse the patronage. Under the old system of checks and balances the power of the patronage was distributed; under the new forms, in which the old checks and balances are happily discarded, it is concentrated in the hands of a few men elected on a general ticket.

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[1] See National Municipal Review, vol. 1, p. 646.

[2] See National Municipal Review, vol. 1, p. 549.

Glance for a moment at the new safeguards established by commission government to replace the old checks and balances—popular control expressed through the initiative, referendum and recall. How far are these effective remedies against the abuse of patronage, the use of the numerous offices under the control of a few men to build up a political machine in order to defeat the will of the people? The initiative and referendum may be dismissed from consideration at once; they are legislative remedies solely, the one to secure the passage of laws desired by the people but refused by the representatives, the other to prevent the passage of laws desired by the representatives but inimical to the people's wishes. The recall? Yes, that would permit the removal of the commissioners who misuse the patronage, provided, however, a clear issue could be made of it. But from the very nature of the case a clear issue cannot be made except in the most extreme instances.

The inadequacy of the usual provisions inserted in commission government charters was pointed out in detail. A year ago Robert W. Belcher, assistant secretary of the National Civil Service Reform League, and Mr. Goodwin prepared an article on "Civil Service Reform in Commission Charters" for the volume entitled *Commission Government in American Cities*, compiled by the American Academy of Political and Social Science. As the result of that investigation they found that less than one-third of the commission cities were under civil service rules. Outside of commission cities in Massachusetts, to which the general civil service law of the state applies, there are only a few in which the civil service laws are measurably adequate. In the vast majority of cases in Mr. Goodwin's opinion they are notoriously inadequate—almost puerile.

To give a city civil service commission a proper degree of independence of appointing officers to enable it to carry out its purpose without at the same time making it static and unresponsive to sound public opinion is, it must be confessed, a puzzling problem. In some states in the east, notably Massachusetts, New York and New Jersey, this has been accomplished with a considerable degree of success through state supervision or state control. This merely involves the recognition of the fact that the state has a real and legitimate interest in the purity of elections and the honesty of the administration in all its subordinate civil divisions, including cities. A state administrative commission is not controlled by the influence of local city politics, it has a standard to uphold in all parts of the state and cannot afford to discriminate in any marked degree in favor or against one particular city. If, as in New York State, each city has its own locally appointed and supported civil service commission, subject in all their important functions to the supervision of a state commission, results have shown that local initiative is not hampered but rather encouraged, while an efficient safeguard has been provided against the lowering of the standard of administration below that prescribed by the state for all cities.

This plan, however, is unpopular in the west, where any supervision of local administration by state administrative boards is apparently looked upon (I think mistakenly) as a violation of the principle of local self-government. Again, only six states at the present time have state civil service commissions. We are therefore forced to consider the provisions which it is essential to insert in a city charter in order to provide for an efficient enforcement of the merit system. I have discussed this question in a paper before the National Municipal League at its meeting in Buffalo in 1910.[3] I quote from that paper the four provisions which appear to me to be essential.

"First. The commissioners must be appointed for terms and these terms made to overlap so that, at all times, a majority of the commission should be made up of those who have had previous service. A provision for a commission of three, not more than two of whom shall be of the same political party, appointed for six-year terms, one vacancy occurring every two years, seems to be the best yet devised to accomplish this object.

"Second. The term will accomplish little or nothing unless a tenure is attached to it sufficient to prevent the mayor or council from coercing the action of the commission by threat of removal. A provision that removal shall be for cause only and after a hearing, but without review by the courts, will permit the mayor to get rid of an inefficient or dishonest commissioner and at the same time protect the commission against coercion in their administration of the law.

"Third. All provisions essential to a proper enforcement of the merit system should be contained in the law or charter itself.

"Fourth. The civil service commission should have power to make rules, after proper notice and hearing, without a requirement for approval by mayor or council.

What has been said up to this point has dealt with the establishment of the merit system in city government in the sense in which that term is generally used; that is, as applying merely to the subordinate service. In spite of the results for increased efficiency and honesty which it has brought about, civil service reformers have long been aware that if confined to this limited meaning the merit system was far from complete and government under it presented the striking anomaly of the subordinate service withdrawn from politics and subject to appointment for merit and fitness only, while the immediate administrative superiors of this large force, directing its efforts and largely controlling the destiny of its members, remained directly subject to political influence and was recruited with little regard for ability to perform the duties of their positions.

Students of municipal government have frequently pointed out the striking contrast between municipal government in European countries and in the United States in the presence of permanent experts in charge of operating departments there and the total absence of any such expert direction here. As time progresses and the business of city government is extended this distinction as Mr. Goodwin emphasized grows sharper and the need of expert management more obvious. Some have pointed it out as the leading weakness in American city government and have predicted that through the installation of permanent expert direction of business departments city government here can be placed upon a sound and successful basis; but they have failed to suggest a method by which this desired result may be obtained.

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[3] See the Buffalo *Proceedings*, p. 304.

This was the problem which the joint committee that presented the preliminary report referred to above. Its members recognized that it was not necessarily a problem in civil service reform as generally understood; that other countries, notably England, had secured the expert direction of city operating services without resort to competitive examinations. It is useless to theorize when one has the facts. In the administration of the business departments it is as harmful to have political direction as to lack expert direction. The non-competitive or qualifying examination, leaving the executive officer the widest possible latitude among persons qualified is the system inaugurated by the new Boston Charter. It was rejected by the committee because it does not, and cannot, go further than to exclude the unfit and only limits, and does not prohibit, political selection and political direction. In Mr. Goodwin's words:

> No other method of obtaining at one and the same time fit appointees and non-political appointees has as yet been devised in this country than the plan of competitive examination—examination to prove fitness, competition to fix an order of selection regardless of politics and approximate the ideal of the appointment of the most fit. The ordinary written examination of set questions and answers was obviously unfitted for the purpose of filling expert positions of high grade. It leaves out of account too many important factors, simply furnishing a restricted groundwork of knowledge and character, with too little information regarding executive ability, energy and personal fitness to inspire confidence in appointing officers. Something more to supplement or supplant this restricted method was needed and here recent experiments of civil service commissions in new methods of examination have suggested the way out.
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> In the filling of many of these positions it is obvious that knowledge of and experience in the department, combined with requisite scientific education and training, will be of paramount importance. Whenever the proper material can be found in the lower ranks of the service, promotion, safeguarded against political influence through competitive examination which will take account of previous service and record of efficiency as well as education and training, should be resorted to as a common-sense, practical method. By opening these high positions to promotion an incentive to greater energy and observation and self-education will be given to the subordinate service. Through competitive promotion examination the New York City fire department recently secured a new fire chief and he

would be rash who would assert that a more competent expert with an equally satisfactory training and experience could have been chosen by any other method.

Promotion however will clearly not meet the need in all, if indeed a majority, of cases. A broader training and experience is frequently wanted than that which is acquired through service in any one department in one city. The subordinate service as now constituted has lacked incentive; political exigencies have made its members timorous and fearful of facing and accepting new responsibilities; it was not recruited with a view to producing material for the higher expert positions.

Under these circumstances civil service commissions when called upon to fill high positions demanding expert and administrative ability have of necessity turned to the methods employed by large private business interests. This method was described in brief as follows:

The commission selects a board of recognized experts of standing to conduct the test. Widespread advertisement is given to the examination. Character and previous experience of applicants are closely inquired into. In place of the written examination of set questions and answers, the submission of previous work, such as plans in the case of engineers and architects, briefs in the case of lawyers, is required, or the applicants are called upon to submit theses on the organization and methods of the work of which they are to be put in charge. Ample time and information is given them to work this out in detail. Those who are found to have had the necessary education and experience and have shown the greatest ability and initiative in handling the problems are then summoned for an oral test, in which their personal fitness, their readiness, tact and judgment, are passed upon by the board.

It is easy to assert that this system is not watertight, that it covers but a part of the range of requisite knowledge and cannot test adequately the way in which the man will act toward subordinates and superiors; but compare it for adequacy and searchingness with the tests that the private employer, who can devote but a part of his time to the selection of subordinates, applies and its merit will appear. The most important unknown factor, the way the man will work out in practice, is tested in the probationary period following selection. These methods have been used for selecting librarians, architects, street superintendents, office managers chief examiners, attorneys, and other high grade executive officials with results that have been highly gratifying.

What are the expert positions to which this system of appointment shall apply? Mr. Goodwin asked. That has been the question most difficult of answering in the concrete case of each of our forms of city government, although it is not difficult to define the functions they are to perform. Mr. Foulke, in his annual address, aptly answered the question.

The plan submitted by the committee is in part dependent in Mr. Goodwin's judgment for its successful operation upon the organization of city government.

"It cannot, in my opinion," he said, "be made to fit that common form of mayor and council government with numerous heads of so-called departments, each acting independently, or in an advisory capacity to the mayor. It presupposes the adoption of one of the concentrated and simplified forms of city government toward which there is such a decided trend at the present day.

"On the other hand, if the experience of the commission government has proved anything it has clearly proved the practicability of concentrating the functions of city government into a few large departments and placing responsibility for their policy upon a few department heads. This but goes to bear out the much longer experience of certain other cities, notably Philadelphia, in which but a few departments exist, and to emphasize the complexity and absurdity of those city governments, such as New York and Boston, in which there are independent departments numbering from fifteen to forty. Where concentration has taken place it is not hard to determine the position of the expert. There we find a mayor and a small cabinet of advisers, each at the head of a large department, or a council, as in commission government, each member similarly placed, and under them in each department a group of important operating bureaus. It is at the head of each of these operating bureaus that the permanent expert belongs, put there to carry out according to the best approved scientific methods the policy determined on by the head of department or the administration of which he is a member. In this position he presents no obstacle to the carrying out of public policy, for he acts toward the policy determining power merely in an advisory capacity. He retains his position regardless of political changes and with an equally permanent non-political working force under him protects the citizen against waste and inefficiency, due to ignorance or design, through his knowledge of the best scientific methods and his recognized standing as an expert."

It will be seen from this account of Mr. Goodwin's paper, the president's address and the draft of the report of the joint committee that a carefully prepared program was presented to the National Municipal League and to the Los Angeles Charter Commissions. (I use the plural noun because both the city and the county boards of freeholders were in session during July and present at the meetings of the League.) It is perhaps too soon fully to estimate the influence of the argument advanced, nevertheless the result of the persistent hammering on this phase was to make it a dominant one of the convention; and judging from the reports in the newspapers the commissioners were impressed. The following is taken from Los Angeles *Herald*, a few days after an adjournment.

As the result of the conference of National Municipal League workers and the Los Angeles charter revision committee, the following ideas have been crystallized and will probably be incorporated in the proposed new charter:

The extension of civil service examinations for all administrative officers subordinate to the commission of seven men to be elected to take the place of the city council, one of whom will be elected as mayor.

The granting of indeterminate street railway franchises with safeguards to render possible municipal ownership and the rapid amortization of capital.

The appointment of the city attorney by civil service.

Although there has been no meeting of the charter commission since the discussion of these points yesterday, it is the opinion of John J. Hamilton, secretary of the commission, that material changes in minor details will be made all through the charter and that these three essential points will be definitely adopted.

"I now believe," said Mr. Hamilton today, "that methods of civil service have been sufficiently developed to make this method of appointing city officials practicable for all heads of departments subordinate to the commission, and I am sure all the other men will think so, too. I am almost willing to predict definitely that this will be incorporated in the charter.

"That the city attorney will, hereafter, be appointed by civil service tests is another probable result of the convention."

"My own mind has been changed on the civil service proposition," said Lewis R. Works. "I am convinced we should appoint by civil service all officials except the commissioners and, possibly, the city controller.

"The conversion to the extended civil service plan has been complete and remarkable. I believe we all want it now."

In a letter to the committee on the extension of civil service reform Mr. Goodwin said:

The extent of the sentiment may be measured in part by the following: Soon after arrival I got in touch with the secretary of the board of freeholders to find out what had been inserted. Provision had been made for a civil service commission and then a clause had been introduced covering all expert positions similar to that in the new Boston charter and providing solely for non-competitive examination or confirmation by the civil service commission. The charter itself is to contain only general principles; detailed provisions will be inserted in an administrative code, which can only be changed upon a vote by the people of the city. Just as I was leaving Los Angeles I was called up by the secretary who informed me that he had inserted a new clause in place of the Boston charter clause to the effect that the members of the city commission should be elected and all positions under them should be filled through the merit system.

Meyer Lissner's suggestive paper on "Honesty *plus* Efficiency" was a further reinforcement of the program and afforded a fitting contribution to its argument. Taking it by and large civil service reform ran up a big score in its Los Angeles innings.

CLINTON ROGERS WOODRUFF.

THE SELECTION AND RETENTION OF EXPERTS IN MUNICIPAL OFFICE

THE joint committee of the National Municipal League and the National Civil Service Reform League on the selection and retention of experts in municipal office calls attention to a striking distinction between the administration of cities in enlightened European countries and that of the cities in the United States. Regardless of the differences in the form and organization of municipal government in different countries of Europe, there is always at the head of each of what may be termed the operating services of city government in European cities an expert who has won his position through his expert qualifications and experience and who holds that position during continued efficiency and good conduct. In every case he has the reasonable certainty of an honorable and permanent career in the line of his chosen calling. In the United States this essential feature of successful city government is almost wholly lacking. Corresponding positions at the head of the operating services of city government here are filled by a kaleidoscopic procession of casuals, whose appointment and tenure are usually influenced by considerations of partisan politics and no permanency of tenure or hope of a career is probable, if even possible. The application of the merit system to the operating departments thus far has been, with here and there an exception, confined to subordinate positions only. This has created the anomaly that subordinates have been withdrawn from the field of partisan politics, while their superior and directing officials are still subject to its malign influence. The result upon the efficiency of the operating services of city government has been exactly what might have been expected. The absolute necessity of placing upon a permanent and independent basis the higher administrative officials who carry out, but do not create the policies of a city government has been repeatedly emphasized by eminent earnest workers for the betterment of city government in the United States. Among them that eminent student of government here and abroad, A. Lawrence Lowell, now president of Harvard University, pointed out the need very clearly in his brief and admirable paper before the National Municipal League at its Pittsburgh meeting in 1908.

Recognition of the evil is becoming more and more general. There is a steadily increasing demand for some practical method of removing it. Your committee submits the following suggestions:

The operating departments of a city government should be manned by a force selected and retained solely because of competence to do the work of their positions. At the head of each such department should be an expert in the work of the department who holds his position without reference to the exigencies of partisan politics.

American political experience has proved that on the whole the most certain way of securing such a force is through what have come to be known as civil service reform methods, namely, through competitive examinations of applicants for appointment or promotion. Since 1883, when the practical application of these methods began, it has been found that such examinations need not and often should not be confined to book knowledge or to written questions and answers, and that, provided the examination be fairly conducted by competent examiners, other forms of examinations have been successful to a marked degree in filling positions requiring not only the highest expert knowledge but the highest expert administrative ability.

How shall the system which produces such examiners and such results from examinations be established and protected? The answer is through a board of commission, whose one duty it is to maintain and perfect such a system and whose members shall hold their positions independent of arbitrary removal. Whatever the particular form of municipal government may be, the members of its civil service commission should not be subject to arbitrary removal and should not, in fact, ever be removed because of any difference between the partisan political views of the members of such commission and the power that appoints them.

There should be at least three members of such a commission and the terms should be at least three years, one going out of office each year. In Illinois the civil service commissioners are considered as experts and are chosen as such. Such a commission having the authority to prescribe and enforce the conditions of appointment and promotion but with no power itself to appoint or promote will inaugurate and, with experience, will perfect a system that will keep every position from the highest to the lowest in the operating services of a city government free from any partisan political influence.

Since the duties of such a commission are purely administrative and are not in any slightest sense of a partisan political nature and it is important that the standard of administration in each city should be kept at the highest, we favor the administrative supervision of the city commissions, by a central state board. The supervision should be administrative solely and, properly conducted, will tend to keep the level of local administration high. A local commission conscious of constant criticism from a central state board entitled to investigate and report and under proper restrictions to reprimand and to punish will feel a stricter and higher responsibility to the public for the performance of its duties.

In reaching these conclusions, the committee constantly kept in mind that those officials who formulate and establish policies must be in close touch with the people, either by direct election or through appointment and removal without restraint by those who are elected by the people. On the other hand, operating officials carrying out the policies so determined should hold office during continued efficiency and good conduct, and should be experts of education, training, experience and executive ability, and selected and promoted under civil service rules of a kind to determine these qualifications.

To the objection that an incoming administration should have the power to appoint his own experts in sympathy with its proposed policies, it may be answered that experience both in public and in private work has shown that an executive does not need to change experts in order to initiate new policies. In railroading, for example, a change of administration is followed by few, if any, changes among the civil engineers and superintendents of divisions. When Mr. Harriman took charge of the Union and Southern Pacific railroads, and entirely changed their policies, he kept all the former experts, even the chief legal adviser of the road; and Mr. Hill, in his reorganization of the Northern Pacific and its branches made only one change in its large personnel.

To the argument that experts are likely to become bureaucratic and out of touch with the people, experience has demonstrated that they are very much alive to the needs of the people, are well versed in the latest experience of other municipalities, at home and abroad, and that they often suggest improvements of which the people themselves have not thought, and which have never been made an issue. As a general proposition, neither the people nor the politicians have initiated the modern municipal improvements, but rather the experts, such as physicians, sanitary and civil engineers, architects, landscape architects, bacteriologists, philanthropists, and educators, backed up by civic leagues, boards of trade, and similar public bodies.

It is not claimed that an ordinary academic civil service examination is a suitable method to select experts of mature experience and executive ability. The present methods employed by competent civil service commissions for such positions, however, are not such. There are two general methods employed: one selecting for the lower expert positions through very thorough technical examinations, and then promoting to the chief positions as experience becomes mature and executive ability is exhibited; the other is that of directly filling the higher positions by examinations consisting of systematic and thorough inquiry into the education and training of the candidates, their achievements, experience, success in handling men, and ability in executing large affairs, and carried on by examiners who themselves are specialists in the subjects under consideration. For example, for selecting an architect, leading architects are the examiners; for engineers, engineers.

High-grade experts of mature experience do not like to exchange steady private employment for municipal services as conducted in the United States today, with short or uncertain terms during which they are subject to dictation from politicians. Where, however, positions are made practically secure, and where successors can only be chosen by a method from which favoritism is eliminated, and sufficient powers are granted them, experts do apply. This is not only true on the continent of Europe, but has proved true in Chicago, where the city engineer, the engineer in charge of bridges, the city auditor, the chief street engineer, the building inspector in chief, and the chief librarian (with salaries from $3000 to $8000 a year) have been appointed under civil service rules. This system has also been successfully used in the appointment of the state librarian for New York State, assistants to the attorney general, and several other such officials, and, in the federal service, in the appointment of the heads of many bureaus, experts with scientific knowledge and executive ability. R. A. Widdowson, the secretary of the Chicago civil service commission, in a letter dated February 14, 1912, said: "The higher grade examinations in the Chicago civil service, which are usually open to all qualified residents of the United States, attract men of the highest calibre where the salaries are on a commercial basis." The same in substance is reported by the civil service commissions of Kansas City, New York City, New York State, and the United States.

When such a system as herein recommended has been in operation for a number of years there will doubtless grow up in this country, as there has in England and in Europe, a large body of municipal experts in the various branches of municipal activity who begin their careers in cities of moderate size or as assistants in large cities, and by promotion from one city to another or within the same city reach the highest positions.

In the United States we have as an illustration of expert accomplishment the river and harbor work. The fact that out of the $627,000,000 actually spent for that work between 1789 and 1911 so little has gone for corrupt purposes is due to the work having been done under the detailed administration of United States army engineers, who secure their positions through strict competition at West Point and who hold their positions for life during good behavior, and who are only under about the same control as is proposed here for municipal experts. These United States army engineers have nothing to do with the initiation of the work (except in the way of advice) or of the appropriation of funds, and all their expenditures are carefully scrutinized by auditors and comptrollers who disallow any item not strictly within the appropriation and law.

If by this system we should in America succeed in taking municipal contracts out of politics and in putting the control of subordinate employees under persons not looking to the next election, we shall accomplish for the welfare, political morality, and reputation of our American cities a lasting good.[1]

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[1] This is the draft of a report of the joint committee of the National Civil Service Reform League and the National Municipal League, presented to the eighteenth annual meeting of the latter body, held at Los Angeles, July 10, 1912. The committee is composed of Robert Catherwood, Chicago; Richard Henry Dana, Boston; Horace E. Deming, New York; William Dudley Foulke, Richmond, Indiana; Elliot E. Goodwin, New York; Stiles P. Jones, Minneapolis; Clinton Rogers Woodruff. Philadelphia, chairman.

THE DISCUSSION OF THE LOS ANGELES CHARTER

ONE entire day of the Los Angeles meeting of the National Municipal League was devoted to a discussion of the provision of the proposed charter for that city. The following report of the secretary of the Los Angeles board of freeholders on the convention of the National Municipal League gives in concise form an idea of how the discussion impressed those most deeply interested:

The benefits to be derived by the city of Los Angeles from the annual meeting of the National Municipal League held in this city cannot be measured in dollars and cents, or in the changes made in the proposed new charter by reason of the advice of the body of experts assembled here during the convention. It would, however, perhaps be well to make as definite a record of the answers made by the experts to the questions submitted to them on behalf of the board of freeholders as is practicable while the recollection of the incidents of the convention is still fresh. It may be assumed that the official reports of the League will in due time be available.

In the judgment of your secretary, the Los Angeles meeting of the National Municipal League will stand out in the history of municipal government in the United States as marking a great, distinct and memorable advance in the application of civil service principles to the highest appointive offices and employments. The president of the League sounded the key-note of the convention in his annual address; and, as the sessions proceeded, he and other men of national prominence, not only asserted the principle of making the highest appointments upon examination and demonstrated that methods have been devised whereby such tests may be made successfully; but heaped up examples of the use of the merit system in selecting bureau heads and officials of high rank in many fields of official activity in this country. It cannot be doubted that the influence of this convention upon the extension of civil service principles will be far-reaching.

The answers of the experts to the first question submitted, namely, "What number of commissioners should the city elect?" were rendered less distinct than they otherwise would have been by the cleverly executed flank movement of a brilliant group of young New Yorkers in urging Los Angeles to reject the commission plan, elect a large city council, and place the management of the city in the hands of a city manager chosen by the council. Those who favored this view were willing to go to great lengths in increasing the size of the governing body. Those who gave their opinion on the assumption that we were to adopt the commission plan appeared to regard the charter provision for seven commissioners as not far wrong, although authoritative voices were not lacking for the typical commission of five members.

The weight of judgment was clearly in favor of the principle of partial renewal, with over-lapping terms.

There was also a heavy preponderance of authority in favor of electing commissioners simply as commissioners, and not to specific posts.

When question number 4 was reached, "Should bureau heads in the several departments be appointed by the several commissioners absolutely, or subject to confirmation by the commission, or should they be named by the civil service board?" the sentiment for civil service methods was so strong that the question whether appointments should be made from the eligible lists by the commissioners without confirmation was overlooked.

Sentiment was unmistakable, too, for the selection of such officials as the city treasurer from the civil service lists.

As between selection of the controller by civil service methods and his appointment in any other way, the opinion was strongly for the former; but no opposition to his election by the people was clearly voiced.

The commission itself was held to be the proper budget-making authority; but no very definite opinions were expressed as to the permanent provisions on this subject.

The appointment rather than the election of the city attorney was advocated. Civil service tests were suggested, but with the admission that perhaps these should apply only to assistants.

The one authority speaking on the subject was so strongly in favor of coördinating the engineering forces of the city that he favored consolidation of the great departments depending for their principal direction on engineers.

The same authority urged that garbage collection and disposal should be under the commissioner of public works, and not in the health department.

It was admitted that there are two classes of efficiency work, one of which could properly center in the controller's office; but the majority insisted on placing the efficiency bureau under the civil service board, and this was advised as making for concentration of this work.

While insisting that the civil service board should be largely independent of the commission, the experts saw the difficulty of getting rid of a negatively incapable board by the recall; and it appeared to be admitted that a unanimous, or nearly unanimous, commission ought to have power to make a change.

The unanimous view was that heads of departments ought to have the summary power of removal of subordinates for cause stated in writing; the party so removed having the right to put his answer on record, but not to be accorded a trial.

The franchise authority to whom all others deferred in his special field, favored the indeterminate franchise, but with a maximum time limit; and emphasized the importance of so drawing the franchise ordinances or agreements that amortization of the invested capital should begin immediately and proceed so rapidly that the property should belong to the city not later than in twenty or thirty years. He objected to the sale of franchises, insisting that all surplus revenues available should go to municipal purchase. Incidentally, the point was made by another speaker that where existing franchises had long periods to run, they should be taxed. As to interurban railways owning their own right-of-way, it was contended that, rather than put such properties on the same footing as steam railways, the reverse should be the policy and the city should own the terminals of both classes of roads.

The question of the borough system was passed over as applying only to San Pedro and having no general bearing.

The opinion of the president of the League that the public schools are a function of the municipality was not controverted, but there was no extended discussion of this question, in view of local conditions in California precluding the complete absorption of the schools by the city. The point that the charter might provide for an appointive board of education was brought out.

The opinion of the president of the League that proportional representation was practicable under the Hare plan was not seriously disputed.[1] There was some advocacy of the preferential system as practiced at Grand Junction and Spokane.

Los Angeles was heartily congratulated and complimented on the wide scope of municipal power she is reserving for herself; but regret was expressed that the grants or power must be given in such detail.

While the provisions of the city charter for city planning were not criticised as inadequate, emphasis was laid on the importance of providing for city planning on a very broad and inclusive basis.

Finally, the view was expressed that it would not be an objectionable departure from the commission plan to place the library under a board of trustees appointed by the mayor, subject to confirmation by the commission.[2]

Your secretary will have to admit that he is a convert to the doctrine that practically all appointive offices should be filled by competitive examinations. It can no longer be contended that such examinations cannot be made genuine tests of ability and capacity. Methods of making them so have been developed, and their success demonstrated. The Boston method of certification has defeated thoroughly bad appointments; but neither that nor any other plan except the civil service method has proven equal to the securing of affirmatively good talent. To relieve the appointing power from the pressure of place-seekers is itself a gain; and the right sort of administrator, armed with the power of removal, can inforce his policies and secure efficient coöperation from a corps of subordinates chosen under the competitive system.

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[1] Although there were not wanting those who objected to proportional representation on the ground that it introduced the party idea into municipal affairs—C. R.W.

[2] Although the point was raised that libraries properly belonged under the department of education.—C. R. W.

The proposal that Los Angeles reject the commission plan, with its record of almost uniform success, for a European system as yet practically untried in the United States, raises a question worthy of thorough consideration, but one which should be weighed long and carefully before it is adopted. The objection of the president of the League that an American electorate would probably vote for members of the council not so much on their merits as according to how they stood on appointing a certain man for city manager is not lightly to be put aside. The incentive the plan would offer for a campaign to elect a certain number of councilmen and thereby get a certain man for city manager would be pretty strong. Furthermore, such a council, not paid for all their time; not getting the familiar acquaintance with the city's needs which can be obtained only through actual administration, would perpetuate the evils from which American municipal government has so long suffered.

Much was said in the convention of the desirability of separating the representative and administrative functions. The fact unquestionably is that commission government succeeds because it provides a governing body made up of heads of departments and thereby automatically coördinates the municipal activities and puts them on a basis of practical information so gained.

It must be admitted that the lines connecting the electorate, under the commission system with the commission and the department heads composing it, do fork in the diagram representing the flow of authority and responsibility; but the man who lives in a commission-governed city sees the commissioner as he conducts his department and also notes the way he votes in the governing body and is able to hold him responsible, as one man, for his conduct in both capacities. So long as the difficulty is confined to the diagram, it is not likely to prove serious.

The experts gave us an enormous amount of both enlightenment and inspiration. They emphasized many problems which Los Angeles, like every other American city, needs to attack with all the energy, patriotism and intelligence of its citizens. They pointed out with especial emphasis and logical acumen, the need for getting the best expert service in the various branches of municipal business. There is, however, one kind of municipal expert that was scarcely mentioned in this convention—the expert who can both represent and understand the people and manage, in a large, practical way, the work of the technical experts. That sort of expertness—

the expertness of the American business man who employs, organizes, and directs experts and utilizes their trained intelligence—is developed under the commission plan. And that is why it is commanding so ready an assent from the people of so many of our cities.

JOHN J. HAMILTON[3]

CIVIL SERVICE REFORM PROGRESS

THE federal government alone pays out $400,000,000 a year for personal services, and yet, while in the aggregate the United States has more public officials than any country of Europe, every country of Europe has a greater percentage of officials to population. Those who fear increasing "socialization" of the state may find satisfaction in the knowledge that in the United States less is done for the people by government than in any of the older great civilized countries of Europe.

Whatever our views may be on questions of government in the abstract, all good citizens will find satisfaction in the fact that of this vast army of public servants in the United States about 600,000, or nearly two-thirds, are withdrawn from the spoils system and appointed upon a merit basis under laws intended to regulate and improve the public service. Of this number 227,000 positions are under the federal government and the remainder are under the governments of states, municipalities, counties and villages.

The civil service commissions created by the various laws and charters meet in voluntary assembly annually. The fifth meeting of this National Assembly of Civil Service Commissions was held at Spokane June 21, and 22. The proceedings at this conference show that the examinations are becoming more and more in the nature of common-sense business tests of the fitness of applicants for the special duties of their positions; that the civil service laws are faithfully and honestly executed; that competitors, without regard to party, stand an equal chance, and that they are examined and appointed with an increasing degree of accuracy and justice. These conferences are attended by civil service commissioners, chief examiners and secretaries, who bring to the benefit of one another not only the results of their own observations but an enlightened public spirit and an earnest desire to promote the operations of the merit system. The discussions at these conferences are of value not merely to the members of the commissions, but to all citizens who are interested in the reform of the civil service. For the worker in civil service reform they are invaluable, because of the useful and practical information which they furnish and the critical and constructive consideration of questions related to this field of good government. The following is a résumé of some of the more important matters discussed.

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[3] Secretary of the Los Angeles charter commission; author of "The Dethronement of the Boss."

Honorable M. E. Hay, governor of Washington, in his address of welcome said that he doubted whether any man had ever gone into a political position with the unlimited powers that had been given him, but that he had made few changes in the state government; for he recognized that efficiency meant the retention of good men and assurance that tenure depended upon efficiency. He said that in his message to the coming legislature he would recommend that the departments of the state be placed under a civil service law, and that efficiency alone should determine the tenure of office.

Honorable C. E. Buell, state civil service commissioner of Wisconsin and president of the assembly, said that Wisconsin was the only state that had placed its legislative employees under a civil service law and that it only costs one-third as much a day to run the legislature of Wisconsin as it does that of Oregon, and only one-fourth as much a day as that of California or New York. Since the law went into effect the number of legislative employees had been decreased a little more than one-half and that the legislature had just as efficient help as was possible to be obtained. Before the enactment of the law possibly one-half of the employees performed no duties whatever. A great many women were on the pay roll, but they did no work.

Mr. Berry, of Montana, who had been a member of the legislature of that state, gave instances of door-keepers who never opened or closed a door and clerks who never attended a session. In 1901 a committee of the U. S. House of Representatives reported that the abuses and evil practices which had grown up under the present system of appointment of house employees could not be fully and completely prevented except by a permanent statute which should properly and equitably adjust compensation and employment and specifically prevent the abuses which had been reported.

It is said that no city in the United States has so comprehensive and perfect a charter as Pueblo. The civil service commission of that city is an independent department, free from all personal or legislative interference, responsible only to the people and to the charter. It selects the registrars, judges, and clerks of election, the city comptroller and the judge of the municipal court, and of other than day laborers there are only two excepted positions.

Except in Kansas City, Missouri, no tests of fitness have been required for those already in the service at the time of the adoption of the system. Except in Chicago and Kansas City the merit system has not generally been applied to heads of departments and higher municipal offices. This has resulted in constituting at the outset a classified service of political appointees and in perpetuating political influences by leaving the higher positions subject to the spoils system. Public employment is thus made uninviting, since it can not become a desirable career because the higher places are withdrawn from promotion as prizes for meritorious service. The higher positions being filled for political reasons, the classified positions fall under political and personal influences; and the spoils system is thus perpetuated. In most European countries neither influence nor party service has anything to do with the choice of officials except in a mere handful of positions that have to do with party policies. Berlin, for example, recently advertised for candidates for mayor of the city. In the list of thirty applicants there were state and city officials, merchants, educators, and leaders in great industrial enterprises. While it was likely that a Berliner would eventually be chosen for the post, an outsider might be taken from any part of the empire to preside over the destinies of the city. In the United States the merit system is largely confined to the lesser positions, but in the instances where trial has been made of the application of tests of fitness to heads of departments and highly technical positions there has been conspicuous success in obtaining well qualified men. Such positions as chiefs of division would ordinarily be filled by promotion, but where the lower grades do not furnish the requisite qualifications it becomes necessary to hold an open examination. In the federal service among the high grade examinations recently held by the commission are the following:

Chief mechanical engineer, bureau of mines	$4800
Associate statistician, interstate commerce commission	3000
Quarry technologist, bureau of mines	3000
Metallurgical chemist, bureau of mines	3000
Chief physical chemist, bureau of mines	4000
Indian reservation superintendent	3000
Chief irrigation engineer, Indian service	4000
Chief of drainage investigations	4000

Examinations of the character cited are almost without exception nonassembled; that is to say, no scholastic tests are given, but qualifications are determined by general and special education and training, technical and professional experience and fitness, and sometimes theses are required. The results in these high-grade examinations have continued to be very satisfactory, and in each case the civil service commission has secured persons of the very highest attainments.

In his retiring address as president of the assembly Joseph C. Mason, of Illinois, said; "The honest awarding of positions to one thousand persons annually in the city means that you are distributing a leaven that will stand by and fight for the civil service law because they know that it is on the square." He contended that bureau chiefs should *not* be exempted, saying that "with six years experience in practical work I say the merit system never will have the confidence of the people with the fountain head poisoned," and that doubt was thrown upon the honesty of the intentions of those administering the merit system because the spoils system is perpetuated "when you exempt heads of departments from the classified service." He added:

> Now, let us be frank with each other and the public. You know you believe the department chiefs should be in the classified service. You only permitted the exemption as a compromise because you knew you could not get any law through unless the best paid positions were exempted in order that they might be utilized by the organization in power. The only fair stand for you to take thereafter, then, is to tell the people the truth and let the fight to put the major positions in the classified service begin at once. If you do not you will never have a satisfactory merit system. Personally I know the big offices can be filled to the best interests of the public under the merit system. If you do not believe it take five positions at $5000 or more that have been filled under the merit system and compare them with an equal number where political appointments have been made. You will be surprised that you ever thought there was a legitimate excuse for making exemptions of this character. . . . . You can not mix politics with the merit system . . . . The people do not know which is the political appointee and which is the merit employee. The result is that the merit system is charged with all the ills and gets no credit for anything good.

President Taft has repeatedly urged that Congress authorize the extension of the classified service to presidential officers outside of Washington, such as postmasters and collectors.

The commission form of government has in one-third of the cities adopting it been accompanied by the adoption of the merit system. A. M. Fitzgerald, president of the Springfield (Ill.) city commission, stated that an experience of more than a year with the merit system under the commission form of government and a comparison with it under the city council system convinced him that it was possible to have a much more efficient system and that much better results are obtained under the commission form; that the city council, composed of aldermen selected in various wards, was not so intelligent as a city commission; and that the character of the commission was superior to that of the old city council. Thus it is possible to obtain more sympathetic coöperation between the civil service board and the heads of departments. Under the old system the mayor, desiring to have control of the council, was compelled to distribute the various jobs among the aldermen although he was at heart in sympathy with the merit system and anxious to assist the civil service board. Heads of departments, although appointed by the mayor, knowing that their appointment was due to a certain alderman who was not in sympathy with the merit system, would not assist the civil service board. Thus the board would be openly antagonized by the head of a department whose sympathy and support were essential. Under the commission form the head of a department supervising and directing the work of the city government is in intimate relations with the civil service board and mutual respect is established. The city council was always hostile to the merit system, while under the commission form friendly relations prevail with the city heads and healthier conditions exist. Thus we find that the merit system has made great advances in those cities in which there is a commission form of government. He urged that the friends of the merit system should seek to bring about a change from the city council system to the commission form as promoting the merit system.[1]

Thomas C. Murray, assistant chief examiner of the New York City commission, said that very good results have followed from the order of Mayor Gaynor under which all appointments and promotions are made in the order of standing upon the eligible list. The civil service rules have been rigidly enforced in New York City and in every case the rulings of the municipal civil service commission have been upheld by the highest courts. The promotion system based upon efficiency records has proved practicable, and promotions are based upon merit and competition and upon the superior qualifications of the person promoted as shown by his previous service. For the 33,000 employees in the competitive class these efficiency records are the sole means for determining the rating to be given for efficiency in promotion examinations. The examinations have been made thoroughly practical and purely scholastic tests have been eliminated.

A bureau of investigation has been extablished to inquire into the character of applicants for examination and a personal interview is given to each candidate. In the employment of laborers eligibles are certified in the order in which they have filed their applications, but it is believed that better results would be obtained if the law authorized a system of competitive registration, dividing qualified candidates into three general classes depending upon the result of a practical examination and past experience. For unskilled laborers a natural qualification, such as strength and agility, would determine the class in which the candidate would be placed. Notwithstanding the strike by the laborers employed in the department of street cleaning, the regulations were adhered to and the new men were all appointed in accordance with the law.

John T. Doyle.[2]

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[1] See Mr. Goodwin's comments in article on "Civil Service Reform at Los Angeles," p. 639—Editor.

[2] Secretary of the federal civil service commission and of the National Assembly of Civil Service Commissions.

LEARNING TO USE THE RECALL

USE of the recall has been learned by the people of Tacoma, Washington, through its abuse, in the paroxysms of a political convulsion which gave the city four recall elections and one referendum election within a period of less than two months, an experience which well-nigh persuaded the people that the recall was a governmental function undesirable and vicious.

Tacoma with the recall was "like a small boy with a new knife, ready to carve everything in sight," and the similar behavior of Tacoma's sister city, Seattle, bade fair to prove that the recall would be always the weapon of the discontented minority, no matter which faction might be temporarily in power.

The very fear which Tacomans had on this score, however, made them smother two later attempted recalls, and the city now has its governmental instrument of punishment laid up for judicious use, like the father's hickory stick over the door, to make the mayor or city councilman, like the small boy, think twice before he steps from the path of rectitude.

Tacoma, a city of approximately 100,000 inhabitants, adopted the commission form of government October 16, 1909, with a new charter providing the privileges of the initiative, the referendum and the recall.

The first council chosen under the new form of government consisted of A. V. Fawcett, mayor; L. W. Roys, Nicholas Lawson, Owen Woods and Ray Freeland. The recall was first urged against Commissioner L. W. Roys of the department of public safety, on the allegation that he permitted the existence of a vice district, in violation of the state law. The first recall charges were filed, however, against Mayor A. V. Fawcett, who, in the fall of 1910, secured the passage of his anti-treating ordinance, which made it a misdemeanor for any bartender to sell intoxicating liquor to any person to be drunk by another on the premises. The saloon interests appealed to the referendum and compelled the calling of a special anti-treating election, which was set for March 21, 1911.

January 17, 1911, recall charges, inspired, it was believed, by the saloon interests and the agents of special privilege, were filed against the mayor. Many of the charges were vague and the movement progressed at first slowly and was regarded almost as a farce.

When the Fawcett recall was started, the reform element still was fretting about Commissioner Roys and the vice district. A great mass meeting was held January 30, 1911, at which it was decided not only to recall Commissioner Roys on account of his policies but to recall the mayor and the remainder of the council for failing to bring him to time.

The city council on the morning following this meeting instructed the police department strictly to enforce all laws, which it commenced to do by stopping a prizefight on the evening of January 31. Fight enthusiasts were displeased and many business men were chagrined at the disappointment to which crowds of out-of-town visitors were subjected, and within a few hours 800 names were added to the Fawcett recall petitions.

The church and reform element and the sporting, vice and special privilege element were now aligned, both working against the mayor. Only 3072 signatures to the petitions were required, this number being 25 per cent of the number of votes cast for mayor at the preceding election, at which the vote had been light. The success of the recall was additionally furthered by the fact that woman's suffrage had taken effect since the preceding election, thus doubling the number of electors without increasing the number of signatures required. Under such circumstances sufficient signatures were secured, and an election was called for April 4, 1911.

The anti-treating election was held meanwhile and the anti-treating ordinance was sustained.

With the recall petition completed, a bitter campaign ensued. The charges, as filed, were practically forgotten, the election becoming a mere political fight. Mayor Fawcett appealed to the people as to a jury, which should decide whether the accused were guilty or innocent. Many voters, however, looked rather on the recall as a means by which the city might discharge one employee and hire another, as it would choose. A. H. Barth, Socialist candidate, took enough votes in the first election so that no one received a majority, and a second election, April 18, was necessary before W. W. Seymour finally was elected mayor, with a majority of 733 in a vote of 21,711.

The people were now sick of politics and many willingly would have dropped further recalls, but in the meantime charges had been filed against the four councilmen, and sixteen candidates, in addition to the four incumbents, had appeared. Two elections, one May 2 and one May 16, were necessary to secure a choice. Commissioner Roys was defeated by F. H. Pettit and Commissioner Lawson was defeated by Benjamin J. Weeks, while Commissioners Freeland and Woods retained their positions.

The recall, as an instrument of sane government, was now practically discredited in the minds of the general public.

Defeated through the use of the recall as a political tool, and defeated by an indecisive margin as a result of a peculiar combination of circumstances, Mr. Fawcett and his followers smarted at the seeming injustice of the mayor's summary dismissal. Encourged by subsequent events at the city hall, members of the Fawcett camp filed recall charges against Mayor Seymour, January 13, 1912, nine months after his election. The mayor was accused of faults equally vague with those by which the recall of Mayor Fawcett had been secured.

This new recall movement, however, was greeted with chilling response.

The News and *The Ledger*, newspapers of Republican National Committeeman S. A. Perkins, which had urged the recall of Mayor Fawcett, naturally opposed the recall of Mayor Seymour, and the public in general expressed disapproval. Told that the recall of Commissioner Weeks was generally demanded, the recall workers now filed charges against the commissioner, hoping thus to aid their cause. Commissioner Weeks granted certain concessions, at which action *The Times*, the Scripps-McRae paper on which the Fawcett forces had based their whole hope, declared against the recall not only of Weeks but also of Seymour. *The Tribune*, independent, likewise opposed the recall, and with public sentiment averse to more politics the recall movement died.

The attempt frightened some of the people, however, and a move was made to draw the teeth of the recall by increasing the number of signatures demanded and by requiring that the petitions be signed at the city hall, but this agitation was quieted and the recall remains operative, a powerful civic weapon, as before.

Curiously enough, at the last general election, Commissioner Lawson was re-elected to the position from which he had been recalled one year previous, the indication to the public being that his removal had been little more than a political circumstance rather than an evidence of unfitness.

That the people of Tacoma, through their abuse of the recall, have learned its use, is evident. The vexed problem of the so-called social evil still is before the city of Tacoma, and there are various indications, from meetings at the city hall, private and public statements and articles in the newspapers, that if, at the end of the six months' probation period of present Commissioner of Public Safety A. U. Mills, there is a considerable body of people dissatisfied with his solution of the problem, recourse to the recall will be attempted again.

The recall is not dead, although the temper of the people is such that they would not readily consent to its being abused now as it was at first, even if conditions could arise which would make such abuse a second time possible.

Edward F. Mason.[1]

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[1] Of the editorial staff of the Tacoma *Tribune*.

"TO EXPRESS OUR GLADNESS THAT WE ARE AMERICANS"

HOW ROCHESTER IS BEGINNING TO SOLVE THE IMMIGRATION PROBLEM

IT IS the purpose of this short paper to notice how the people of Rochester are meeting the immigrant problem and indicate generally what they are doing for the newcomer to our shores. It is not possible to give a thought to this subject in relation to Rochester, without being tremendously impressed with the opportunity that is offered to write another article on "How the Rochester immigrant is meeting the American problem, and all that he is doing for his city." Of course in one sense all of our citizens are immigrants or the children of such, but Rochester still has a large number of men and women who were born over the seas who have made good and done good here. Most of these men are either German or Irish and it may be this fact combined with this other: that the new immigration has not swamped the city, that accounts for the unusual manner in which this city has said its word of welcome. Probably most of all, the best things about Rochester are due, as in other places to the large number of men and women of civic and social vision; these have made the city a pioneer in many activities that soon all American cities will make common custom.

A word is perhaps needful on the quantity and quality of the immigration found in Rochester. The largest foreign element has always been German, according to the census. We write "according to the census" as it is quite a query whether the last census has accurately numbered the Italians in only reporting 10,638. The very general opinion among Italians and those intimate with them is that there are at least 20,000. The Italian consul was not afraid to say 30,000. Whatever be the truth, and it is very possible that the consul is nearer the truth—as there is more than one way for accounting for the mistake—it is Germany which has led in numbers during all the years. At the last census, 14,582 persons of German birth were in the city. To simply note the groups having more than a thousand representatives in the city we should have a table something as follows: Germany, 14,582; Italy, 10,638; Canada, 9642; Russia, 7144; Ireland, 5230; England and Scotland, 5888; Austria, 1693; and Holland, 1220. Most of the Austrians are Jews, as are nearly all of the Russians. The total foreign white population at the time of the thirteenth census was 58,993 and the total white population of foreign parentage was 83,687. Yet 91 per cent of the school children of Rochester were born under the stars and stripes, a fact easily explained, which also cancels nearly 100 per cent of the so-called menace of recent immigration.

We cannot tell of all the possible channels through which may flow the assimilative influence towards the new citizens, but we will enumerate those which seem to us most useful. Historically and perhaps scientifically, the charitable organizations call for first mention. The great needs are first seen by the minorities, and private funds pioneer great civic enterprises through the day of experiment towards the days of public control. One of the earliest and still very efficient channels of help for the newcomer is the Rochester Social Settlement in the ghetto. A quiet sympathetic gentile woman has here endeared herself to thousands by her superintendence and wise neighborliness. If the true definition of a friend be "one who knows everything about us and loves us just the same," then no Russian men or women who come to make Rochester their home are long without a friend. The Jewish people have responded splendidly to the spirit of Rochester and each year their young men are found carrying off the prizes at the university, their fathers succeeding in large business undertakings, and throughout the ghetto a larger earnestness for the common good is to be found. The Russian Jews have to fight hard to prevent themselves from becoming socialists, it seems their natural political expression, and many of them in Rochester have been captured by or have captured the enthusiasm for *such* democracy, and be it said to their credit, theirs is usually an intelligent attachment. Spargo, Scudder and Hillquit and certain "intellectuals" in Rochester itself are not without influence in this assimilative process. The welcome which charitable societies have given to the Jews would not be complete without some brief mention of the work of the Rochester Boys' Evening Home, which is the oldest boys' club in the city and one of the oldest in the country. Long before the schools thought there was any need to meet the needs of these little newsboys with dreams in their eyes, this club, which was founded and fostered by the Unitarian Church, not as a church club, but as a boys' city club, was meeting them with lessons in spelling, arithmetic, geography, drawing and bookkeeping with wonderful readings in Shakespeare and Browning. Some of the old boys are rich business men and rabbis, many are in humbler ways, but all look back, write back and talk back of the days when they met in the old hall with men and women of all creeds, who were there because they were glad they were Americans.

Another of the large charities which is touching the immigrants of Rochester is the Infant's Summer Hospital. This group of buildings is situated on the breeze-swept shores of Lake Ontario. Every summer large numbers of foreign mothers have little sick babies in need of such care. It is the custom of the hospital to have the mothers stay at the lake with the infants until they are better. This affords the nurses the chance to instruct the mothers in the new domestic and hygienic ways. The standards of the American home are thus placed before them, and when they return to their crowded streets and homes, something is going to be different as the result; something is going to be better in care of food or milk, so that soon is born in them "the gladness that they are Americans."

Of more recent work among the immigrants of Rochester a little should be said of the Rochester Housekeeping Center and the work of the North American Civic League for Immigrants. The center was started by a group of young college women some five years ago in one of the large Italian colonies in the northern part of the city. They rented the ground floor of a small Italian home, with an Italian family living upstairs; and here in the center of the colony they tried to set the example of American neighborliness. A settlement worker and a nurse are now the constant workers in the new cottage which they own, and by only living on a scale within the means of their neighbors they are one of the most intense influences for good Americanism among the women and children that the city possesses.

The North American Civic League for Immigrants has recently sent its agents among the Poles of the city, and after a survey had been made they started to rouse public opinion in regard to the somewhat isolated character of these new comers. They are starting a library and English classes among them also, as the school house is some distance from the colony. Much more could be written of the general spirit of interest in the immigrant, which runs through the whole social atmosphere of Rochester. The hospital social workers find their way into the homes of their foreign patients after they have left the wards, to help them protect themselves from the evils that led to their sickness, many individuals have started little classes in the homes for general education and domestic help of the foreigner. We have heard of a good motherly lodging-house keeper who seemingly only wanted to have Rochester Greeks in her rooms, so that she could give her spare time to teaching them freely and advising them in regard to the many things that they did not know.

Whether the reader thinks the immigrants deserve it or not, they are certainly well thought of in this city. Whether it be the laying out of playgrounds, or the opening of a social center or the appointing of school nurse, it is the immigrant who is first served, whose districts are first benefited.

The last development in this immigrant enthusiasm came from the City Club, a body of some five hundred business and professional men. Three years ago they conceived the idea of giving to all the newly naturalized citizens of the previous twelve months, a banquet of welcome, at which speeches from hosts and guests might be given to "express our gladness that we are Americans." The first banquet was given three years ago on the Fourth of July, and as one reported it after, banker and sewer digger, city official and factory hand sat and ate together at the common board and afterwards joined hands around the large banquet hall and sang the national anthem. The next year a larger number gathered together and this year the success was most enthusiastic.

Instead of gathering in the large hotel headquarters of the City Club. the "Welcome Feast" was held in one of the large school houses. This was done for more than one reason. It embarrassed the immigrant less who had not been used to hotel dinners, it made the whole atmosphere more democratic, and it started the idea which has long been in the minds of those who have fostered this movement in Rochester, that some day in the future, when the coming American is really here, all the school houses—as the true temples of the people—will have a spread once a year "to express our gladness that we are Americans and our re-consecration to the cause of democracy." To this coming feast the twenty-one year old American and immigrant alike will be specially invited and each school district will have its separate celebration of their entrance upon the duties of that democracy and seek to make that entrance significant. The judges who grant the naturalization papers to the immigrants are usually invited to be the toastmasters of these occasions, to thus assert the fundamental fellowship of true democracy not only on the bench, when the immigrant is awed, but at the dinner table when the immigrant is glad. This year the assistant corporation counsel gave the official word of welcome to the city and this was responded to by a young man from Poland, who had taught himself the language at evening school and at home and was now about to enter the university.

Then three well experienced citizens gave a symposium on American ideals, one speaking after seventy-three years' knowledge on the "ideals of the American home," a school commissioner on the "ideals of the American school" and then a progressive lawyer on the "ideals of American politics." At the close the whole body of men rose and said the old freeman's oath together: "I do solemnly bind myself that I will give my vote and suffrage as I shall judge in my own conscience may best conduce to the common weal," ending with an enthusiastic singing of the first verse of "America."

It is felt that the day will come, not only in Rochester and the two or three other cities which have copied Rochester, but in all American cities when the annual welcome day for the new citizens will be a festival day as much as Independence Day; it might even become the new independence day, or as has been suggested, the "interdependence day."

The work however that is beginning to appeal most to the city of Rochester is not that which is accomplished by any charity or club, but which is the expression of the community and finds its illustration in the schools. The American public school is the great and most permanent influence on the newcomer. The little tot that can only prattle its mother's language, comes and finds kindly teachers waiting to lead it into the mysteries of the new tongue. The pictures on the walls, the plants in the windows and the boys and girls who have been here a few months longer, but who have not forgotten the strangeness of the first day, coming forward to greet the little strangers all seem to add to the glad-to-see-you spirit that pervades the entire building. Through the universal language of action the Rochester schools are reaching out to the little strangers so well that it is a frequent thing to find some of the scholars, especially the little boys from Russia, finishing the eight-year course in five and six years. One pupil wrote a month or so ago: "I came to America six months ago and I like to live in America all the time. In America the people are kind. I like much better American school than Russian school." One teacher writes to us: "The expression of the face and the general bearing of these children change after they have been in the schools only a few months." The frightened look goes and more life and fuller comes.

The schools of Rochester some years ago led the country in the recognition of the fact that the school house was the true club house of the people, and that it should be made efficient for the needs of the entire community. In no parts of Rochester did this new principle of the social use of school buildings find greater welcome than in the immigrant sections. The famous "Number Nine" was in the heart of the ghetto, and soon became the soul of the neighborhood. Again and again visitors from the city and all parts of the country have gone to Rochester to witness the thousand men and women gather in the large auditorium for their Saturday evening meetings. To hear the different dialects and broken English voices ring out verse after verse of "Abraham Lincoln Forever," or "the Star-Spangled Banner" has made eyes on the sternest faces wet. The school had become their dance hall, their domestic science academy, their lecture course, their civic club and all the common needs of the citizen were beginning to be met.

This is still true though the man who fostered the spirit of neighborhood most of all in the schools of Rochester has been called to the national work in Wisconsin, and the present administration is trying to keep up the old ways by letting the principals supervise what they are but in few instances fitted for. The principals have not the time to foster the neighborhood spirit, they can only superintend clubs and classes, and this is the smallest part of the work of the social centers. Adequate or inadequate, the social centers and civic clubs with the regular evening schools are doing or rather allowing the immigrant to do for himself far more than any charity can ever hope to do. It was very interesting to see young men and women who had been led to the American spirit at the social settlement, seriously decide that since the school house was truly democratic and the settlement was supported by charity, they could not any longer consistently attend any of the "doings" at the settlement. Much of the pettiness of spirit, however, was worn away at the center and radicals became better spirited and less radical, and conservative opened mind and heart in broader recognition of human values. It was as they used to sing to the tune of "Mr. Dooley."

There are a lot of races here in our communitee
English—French—Italian—Greek—Hindoo—Dane—Swede—Chinee
And sometimes they forget that we are all one familee;
But there's a place where this is just the fact you will see.
It's-at-the-Center. The Social Center
The place where everybody feels at home:
Forgets the external and gets Fraternal;
There's something doing there—You'd better come.

Eugene Wood had the right estimate when he said of the "Little Old Red School House on the Hill:" "It is the true democracy which batters down the walls that separate us from each other—the walls of caste distinction and color prejudice, and national hatred and religious contempt, all the petty, anti-social meannesses that quarrel with the 'union of hearts.'"

There are some in Rochester as in other cities who talk about the menace of the recent immigration and who ask for greater restriction. There are some in Rochester as in other cities who learn all they know about immigrants from sensational news items about the passionate murders of Italians. There are some in Rochester as in other cities who do not believe in our immigrant factory hands and laborers protesting in strike against the low wages and evil conditions under which it is imagined they can work. There are some in Rochester as in other cities who think that anything will do for a "dago" or a "sheeny," and that a laborer killed is "*only*" a "wops"; but there are some who, at the sight of the Greek bootblack, think of him as a young fellow from Socrates land, "fresh from the master Praxiteles' hand." There are some who at the sight of the Pole, dream of Chopin and the wild Czech melody with which Dvorak used to make the heavy faces bloom. There are some who, when they see the Italian ditch digger, go four centuries back, "when a world from the wave began to rise," who remember that when Italy dreams, Caesar, Dante and Angelo come with us to dwell. To dream but an hour with some of these, is to pray the prayer with Robert Haven Schauffler:

Newcomers all from the eastern seas,
Help us incarnate dreams like these.
Forget, and forgive that we did you wrong.
Help us to father a nation, strong
In the comradeship of an equal birth,
In the wealth of the richest bloods of earth.

EDWIN ALFRED RUMBALL.[1]

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[1] Editor of *The Common Good*, secretary of the City Club.

HOW A TOWN CAN HELP ITSELF AND THE COUNTRY

EVERYONE in America is expected to help himself and his family, but the idea that a man owes a duty to his town and community is a surprise to most of us. Even more unusual is the belief that towns like individuals owe a duty to themselves and the country which surrounds and supports them. Most towns are satisfied to rely for prosperity upon the initiative of their individual citizens, it seldom occurs to them that they can do something for themselves—that they ought to do so if they hope to be truly prosperous. Neither do they realize that neither town nor country can prosper alone, but that both must put their shoulders to the wheel of progress if either is to prosper as it should.

After all if the town lives "off of the country" it is on the same level as a man who lives "off of another man" which means he is a parasite whether he is a beggar or a capitalist. Town and country must pull together or neither will go forward.

How the town can help the country is not at first clear. It is easy enough to see how the country can help the town; it can produce heavy crops which will give good profits to the dealers in country produce, it can spend freely to make the merchants prosperous so that town property may become desirable which in turn will make it possible to light the streets and perhaps even to pave them. But what can the town do for the country? No one knows until he tries, or rather no one knew until someone tried. The towns have tried various single schemes; some made free markets and succeeded, some helped build roads and bridges and that helped both the country and the neighboring city, but there were few towns that set out to find *any and all ways* they could help the country roundabout—and therefore themselves. After a town tries it, not in the half-hearted way in which a "reform movement" is run, but with the enthusiasm and determination of modern business methods, it doesn't hide its light under a bushel—it couldn't if it would.

One of the towns which has made the experiment and is keeping right on trying it is Fond du Lac, Wisconsin. The story reads like a fairy tale, but seeing is believing and if you go to Fond du Lac you will see that it is true. Like most middle Wisconsin towns Fond du Lac, years before its awakening, had a business men's association, and like most business men's associations, that organization met yearly, ate a good banquet and lapsed back to inactivity. Both the town and the business men's association, like examples of the same species all over the state, resembled Mr. Finney's turnip "that grew behind the barn" they "grew and they grew" and so far as any one could see they "did no harm." They didn't try to *do things*, but they grew because it was the natural thing for their kind to do in Wisconsin. But that state of mind came to an end, something or somebody set the town and its business men thinking. Why not go after things instead of waiting for them to come?

Instead of passing resolutions and letting it go at that the business men's association this time decided to do a very American thing—to have some committees, seven of them. At the head of each was a man who was a live wire, he had made a success of his own business and he was now to make a success of his committee—for the town. Manufactures and finance good roads, trade extension, city government, civic art, commercial travelers and publicity, these indicate the lines on which the town was going to try to *do* something. Other towns have gone that far and failed, but Fond du Lac went farther. It was developing a "community sense" and the men on the committees got up every morning to think what they could do for the town. What *did* they do?

The committee on manufactures and finance studied the plant, that is the first element of success—to find out what industries the town needs and what ones it could most easily support. Then they went out to find firms which were just worrying along because of lack of a good supply of raw material, or a bad labor market, or poor transportation facilities. To those in charge they showed the possibilities of Fond du Lac. It wasn't a process of stock subscription and voting exemption from city taxes for a term of years in order to induce a weak firm to add its weakness to the town. It was an endeavor to get those to come who would reap advantage from the better conditions which the town had to offer. The merchants of Fond du Lac did not proceed on the theory that stealing an industry from another town made their own city richer, but on the plan of letting the advantages of the town be known and relying on common sense to do the rest. New industries were introduced, such as wood working, brick making and the like for which the location of the city was especially suited. An illustration is what was done with a large factory which had remained idle for several years after a large boot and shoe concern had gone into liquidation. A typewriter company with a capital of $365,000 was shown the advantage of location which the city had to offer. It took over the empty factory and started business with an initial order of 2500 typewriters on its books, for the people of Fond du Lac and vicinity support home industries.

New business alone can't make a town, so the members of the organization interested themselves in securing fresh working capital for old concerns, placing them on a sound financial basis. The theory was that if any sacrifice had to be made it would be better for Fond du Lac to lose a new manufacturing concern than to have an old manufacturing concern lose in Fond du Lac. Details would make the story too long, the success of the effort is shown by the result—there is not today one empty factory building in the city.

The good roads division realized that *its* work was essential if the town was to reach the country and the country reach the town. They secured D. Ward King, the inventor of the King Road Drag, to come to the city to speak at a good road congress to which were invited the town chairmen and road supervisors of the surrounding counties in the endeavor to encourage coöperation in securing good roads. One of the local implement manufacturers became interested and started manufacturing the road drags. Ten were presented to the city which immediately loaned them out to the supervisors of roads leading to town. Other townships bought their own. The local automobile owners united to give prizes for the best kept roads. Many of the townships voted increased money for the construction of roads so that they could avail themselves of the state aid for road building which, with the support of Fond du Lac's representatives had recently been secured by law. The better roads made Fond du Lac an easier market. Produce came to town from greater distances, business in farm products became more thriving than ever before and on the other hand the attractiveness of country life was increased.

The committee on trade extension did its part in encouraging people to come to their progressive city. No one will come to buy unless he knows what the merchant has to sell so the committee started a "trade pusher" which they called the *Fond du Lac Trade Extension*. Twelve thousand copies of each issue were mailed out into the surrounding counties. The paper carried no local news but devoted itself to advertising the goods of the local stores and contained articles on good roads, pure bred stock and seeds, besides a column devoted to valuable hints to farmers. This helped the country, it showed the farmer how to raise better cattle and crops—and incidentally it brought trade to town.

Interesting schemes were adopted to increase the popularity of the sheet. Each issue contained a coupon which if signed was accepted as a ticket at any of the afternoon picture shows. Story and rebus contests were included with prizes of $8, $6 and $4. The public interest aroused is shown by the answers sent to these problems. The first month 230 answers were received, the second month 524, and lately about a thousand a month. This meant the paper was being read. Did it pay? It did. The paper was self-supporting from its first year. After paying all expenses including printing, distribution, prizes and the manager's salary the year was closed with a balance of $350. So popular was the paper that in the second year the advertising space was over-subscribed and the space originally allowed to each firm had to be cut down to keep the publication within its usual size.

The same committee chartered a steamer for week-end excursions from nearby villages. A nominal fare of 25 cents was charged which was rebated if more than $5 was bought in town. They established a rest room where visitors could go to wait for the interurban car which was to take them home and to which they could have their purchases sent until they were ready to take charge of them. All this helped trade. It helped both town and country and has the enthusiastic approval of both merchants and customers.

The civic art committee also did good work. They convinced the merchants that "trade follows the light" and that a well-lighted city is a well advertised city. Publicity of the right sort brings trade and trade means prosperity. Travelers who stop in a city always notice its lights and travelers carry tales. If a city is well lighted it is set down as a live town. If its streets are dark it is dubbed a "dead one." A committee waited on the merchants to secure their coöperation in installing an ornamental lighting system. The money was raised by the abutting property owners, and the city, having agreed to maintain the lights, the system was turned over to it free of charge. Allied with this effort for the city beautiful went a number of plans to create an awakened civic pride. School children were encouraged to cultivate flowers around their homes and to take pride in the appearance of the streets, a general city house cleaning day was inaugurated and prizes were offered for those who were especially active in making the city in its outward appearance a more beautiful and a better place in which to live.

All this was not a process by which the city tried to lift itself by its bootstraps. It wasn't a purely selfish attempt to secure a better position at the cost of the neighbors. Just as at the bottom of every operation in business there ought to be mutual profit for both customer and merchant so there was here a spirit of all round helpfulness without which the plan could not have succeeded.

The illustration is local, but it carries a general lesson. America has so long been proud of the energy of its individual citizens that it stands in danger of overlooking the common good and what can be accomplished by a long pull, a strong pull and a pull all together. Not every town perhaps can accomplish what is being done in Fond du Lac, but there are thousands scattered over this broad country of ours which could duplicate or exceed what this one town did, and thousands more, though their position does not allow such signal advance, could profit in a lesser degree and make home more attractive and life more worth living by just these means.

Such efforts do not bring blessings to the town alone. When the town is made more attractive and easy of access life is more worth living in all the country round about. Prices are better, for every mile of good roads brings the farm nearer to market and the ease with which products find their way to market has an important influence on the price which is paid. Most important of all are the changed educational and social conditions which propaganda of this sort bring to the farming community. Country life loses its lonesomeness and is made broader and more attractive than it was before. Both the advantages of the town and the beauties of the open fields are brought home to the farmer in a new way. The town which starts out to help itself brings a blessing quite as great to its neighbors.

CHESTER LLOYD-JONES.[1]

RECENT GRAFT EXPOSURES AND PROSECUTIONS

IN THE graft exposures and prosecutions in cities and towns of the United States for the past six months, Chicago provides the best example of quiet, patient and effective investigation. There is a marked absence of spectacular effects that suggest skillful advertising in Chicago's latest excursion into the world of graft; and what is better, there are indications of constructive work of great practical value.

At the request of Henry Ericsson, commissioner of buildings, the civil service commission of Chicago conducted an inquiry into the methods and systems in use and the organization within the department of buildings, continuing from December 28, 1911, to May 6, 1912. In this investigation the commission had the assistance of the experts of the efficiency division, James Miles and J. L. Jacobs as examiners in charge, with the coöperation of Leon Hornstein, assistant corporation counsel.

There was time to be thorough. The methods of trained investigators were employed. The men charged with the unpopular task of unearthing the facts were protected in their positions by the rules of the civil service; but despite these favoring conditions the task set before these men was no simple one.

> The duties and obligations of the department of buildings are of a broad and comprehensive character, and its power for good or evil exceeds that of any other department of municipal government except the department of police. These activities and powers at one time or another, directly or indirectly, affect every inhabitant and enter intimately into the commercial life of the city.
>
> The tremendous growth of the department, lax administration, ulterior influences, lack of trained and reliable employees, incorrect lines of organization and greed on the part of the builders, and graft on the part of employees, have all had their part, not only in bringing about a demoralization of the department, but in adding to the difficulty of discovering faults and abuses and in ascertaining and applying the necessary corrective measures.

As a result of this investigation 1244 violations of the building code were disclosed. Of these, 182 separate violations were of the section relating to habitable rooms, bathrooms, pantries, requirements as to ventilation and lighting; 146 separate violations concerned rooms, sizes and height of attic rooms; 112 violations dealt with constructing buildings contrary to approved plans.

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[1] University of Wisconsin.

The actual number of violations of the ordinances is not represented in this total of 1244, as the separate times a violation was discovered in any one building were not noted in this list. The actual number of violations of ordinances in 500 buildings is estimated approximately at 1800. This is an average of about 7 violations to every 2 buildings in which violations were found.

The present building code of Chicago is proclaimed by the commission to be as strong, comprehensive and adaptable a code as exists in any city in the country. It has, they say, stood an excellent test and proven itself standard, inclusive and powerful.

> The revised building ordinances adopted on December 5, 1910, and amended to date, have been found to be as complete and strong a set of rules and regulations, safeguarding property and persons, as are in existence in any city in this country.

How, then, did this model building code come to be violated with impunity? The story is told in the fifty-nine page report of the commission from which quotations are made above and below.

An investigator hints at one of the most fruitful sources of violations as follows:

> On several occasions while making investigations, the owner or contractor would drop hints about paying money or having paid money to other inspectors and in several cases money was offered directly to me. They seemed to take it for granted that I was the inspector of the district.

In addition to the temptation to graft here suggested, these powerful ordinances were rendered practically null and void by the practice of the council in allowing violations by special orders.

> A careful examination of the proceedings of the city council, from May 1, 1911, to April 29, 1912, a period of one year, shows that about 350 council orders were issued in connection with building construction. The greatest number of these allowed violations in buildings which are located in congested districts and neighborhoods where danger to persons and property is greatest. One particularly objectionable and notable practice is that of passing council orders which do not state definitely what violation or violations are allowed. In 212 cases, or about 60 per cent of the 350 building council orders passed during the period above mentioned, the statement of violation or violations to be allowed was neither definite nor explicit. As the result of these indefinite orders—often introduced to get around a just inspection by the building department—designing contractors and owners have profited greatly by erecting buildings with many violations.

Some cases have come to the attention of the commission where buildings erected in violation of the code were countenanced by building inspectors until such time as a council order was passed.

After specifications along this line and further censure, the commission summarizes the results of the inquiry with clear cut conclusions among which are:

That the building inspection situation has been a weak spot in the municipal government and that inspections of construction and alteration work involving approximately $100,000,000 a year has been ineffectively and uneconomically performed because of the department's lack of scientific organization and fixed responsibility.

That because of the many past years of laxity in supervision and an inadequate system of records the discipline of building inspectors was particularly low and insubordination was rife throughout the department.

That bribery was countenanced by contractors, owners, building inspectors and assistant inspectors in charge.

That many inspectors deliberately overlooked serious defects in construction of buildings and waited until the structures were near completion and then "held up" contractors and owners, threatening to compel them to repair the defect or defects unless given "hush" money.

That many inspectors consistently and regularly held up innocent owners and contractors for amounts varying from $5 to $200 for tolerating certain violations.

That the issuance of a permit to construct or alter a building often served as a signal for someone to go out and arrange to "fix up" matters.

That investigators of this commission, checking up the work of building inspectors in the field, were offered and received (in the presence of detectives of the police department) bribes from contractors and owners.

That the conditions above noted have been largely due to:

a. No fixed responsibility or effective system in examining and checking of plans, and following up approved plans.

b. No fixed responsibility or effective system in checking movements and work of inspectors.

c. Loose systems in requirement and issuing of reports and preserving records, plans, etc.

d. No uniformity in division and in methods and procedure of inspection work.

e. No permanent record of rulings and interpretations of certain sections of ordinances.

f. Immunity of inspectors from criminal prosecution, because they are not "officers," and no determined effort to proceed against contractors, owners and architects, who regularly violated provisions of the building code.

After thus pointing out the faults specifically the commission in language no less plain and direct suggests the cures for the department's evils. Prominent among the recommendations are the following:

That an amendment to the code be passed providing for the automatic cancellation of a building permit wherever it is found that the contractor

> or owner has altered the approved plans or has materially deviated from such plans.
>
> That a committee of three be appointed by the city council and be given discretionary power to decide upon the changes necessary in the structures on which violations were disclosed during the inquiry.
>
> That an amendment to the ordinances be passed forthwith making building inspectors, assistant building inspectors in charge, plan examiners and architectural engineers "officers."
>
> That the police department coöperate with the department of buildings, and other departments having similar work, by having policemen turn in daily reports of their observations of building activities.
>
> That the present "loose leaf" system of making and filing reports be done away with, and that a system of reports, correspondence and records be installed which will be permanent, reliable, immediate and adequate.
>
> That arrangements be made whereby employees, and particularly inspectors, be given thorough instruction in the interpretation of ordinances and methods of procedure, and that regular meetings and conferences be held at which employees should be instructed and encouraged in their work.

There are thirty-two recommendations in all, which seem to cover every possible evasion of the building code.

In connection with the suggestion of suits against contractors, owners and architects, the commission recognized with charitable discrimination not always found in graft exposures that these men were more sinned against than sinning. The investigation was made to remedy conditions, methods and disorganization in the department. As it progressed it became apparent that most of the bribe money paid by contractors and owners was the result of extortion rather than collusion, and the matter of proceeding against them was not pressed. The negligent and grafting building inspectors, however, did not escape so easily. As the result of trials during the progress of the investigation, seven building inspectors and two assistant building inspectors were discharged and three building inspectors resigned under charges. The charges against one building inspector were withdrawn on the express understanding that he would resign one day after he had been reinstated in the service. Two building inspectors and one assistant building inspector, against whom no charges had been preferred, resigned during the progress of the investigation.

Under the head of "Criminal Prosecution Impossible" an interesting light is thrown on the reference to "officers" made in one of the recommendations:

> When the matter of proceeding against the building inspectors came up it was found that in spite of the glaring and direct nature of evidence of graft against such inspectors they were immune from criminal prosecution, as the building ordinance describes them as "employees" and not "officers" of the city, while the bribery statute refers only to "officers." The commission respectfully recommends the immediate passage of an amendment to the ordinance, as authorized by the cities and villages act, making building inspectors and their superiors, viz., assistant building inspectors in

charge and any other employees in the city service having like responsibilities and important duties, "officers" instead of "employees."

In contrast with the quiet, but effective, procedure in Chicago is the latest dramatic exposure in Atlantic City with dictagraph and sleuth accompaniment. The operations of Judge Kalisch's "elisor grand jury," acting in coöperation with Governor Wilson's officials, were interestingly set forth in the July number of the National Municipal Review under the title of "Law Breaking in Atlantic City."[1] As a fitting climax to this saturnalia of graft came the arrest of five councilmen charged with agreeing to promote a concrete boardwalk for which each was to receive $5000 if the deal went through. The councilmen involved are Samuel Phoebus, Guss Kessler, William Malia, James Lane and four others whose names are not disclosed. The first four named are said to have been trapped into a confession when confronted with dictagraph records of criminating conversations. Councilman Daugherty, however, with possibly some fine legal distinctions in mind, declined to admit his guilt and invited the great detective to "go as far as he liked." The action of the elisors will determine whether the councilman's faith in his innocence is justified.

Assuming that the confessions of the alleged grafting councilmen are genuine one is more than ever convinced of the worldly wisdom of a line in the closing scene of Get-Rich-Quick Wallingford: "What a fool a man is for being a crook." According to common report all the accused councilmen, with the possible exception of Daugherty are already well supplied with worldly goods. Phoebus is one of the best known hotel men in the resort. Kessler, familiarly known as the "millionaire butcher" heads one of the largest packing houses and is credited with possessing half a million. Lane is one of the favored Kuehnle contractors and is president of the Lane Paving Company. Malia is proprietor of the hotel that bears his name and is reputed to be worth at least $100,000.

Ordinance No. 6, which is alleged to have appealed to the avarice of these men already rich, is officially known as the "concrete board walk bill." It now appears that it was a "frame up" ordinance or "plant" made by Detective Burns to secure evidence that big bribes had been paid in the award of the $1,000,000 drainage canal. It provided for the rebuilding of the board walk by sections, as the council might determine by resolution from time to time, and that all repairs must be made under the plans prepared by a civil engineer to be employed. This engineer was to be employed for "all repairs," which meant that his tenure of office would be permanent, and that the city would be called upon to pay him indefinitely. No estimate of the cost was made but unofficial figures gave it as at least $1,000,000 within a comparatively few years.

The developments in the board walk exposure promise an unusual number of thrills. It remains to be seen whether the entertaining features will be supplemented with the kind of constructive work of which the Chicago commission has given such a good example.

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[1] See National Municipal Review, vol. 1, p. 500.

The limits of this article demand a briefer review of the remaining recent graft exposures than perhaps their importance justifies. Among the minor instances, West Hammond, Indiana, seems to be a shining exception to the accepted rule that the village is the abiding place of the homely virtues. Affairs at West Hammond have for us a sentimental interest because an accomplished and comely young woman of twenty-two is the center of the reform movement. The interest of Miss Virginia Brooks, late of Chicago, in the municipal methods of West Hammond originated through her ownership of property in the village on which the taxes and assessments for improvements were abnormally high. It is now changed into a heart interest in the improvement of the Polish women of the community. Miss Brooks is credited with saving the taxpayers over $21,000 and with waging a successful fight against the gambling dens which have taken even larger amounts from the pockets of the laboring population. She has pluckily carried her fight for decent government to the supreme court of the state. Her work has now assumed constructive shape in the social settlement and is worthy of a detailed study.[2]

The fight waged against alleged graft in Gary, Indiana, under the leadership of T. B. Dean of Lexington, Kentucky, resulted in a verdict of "not proven." Unlike Miss Brooks, Mr. Dean did not settle in the community, but quit in disgust, saying: "The town is too rotten for me Let some one else clean it up." The "Magic City" incurred the wrath of Mr. Dean by failing to give him a desired heating franchise under what he considered suspicious circumstances. As the result of his prosecution, a partial confession was secured from one of the aldermen who gave a $2000 bond, but afterwards sold his property and disappeared. The stenographer who took down the dictagraph records later repudiated them. These facts and a general difficulty of keeping vital witnesses from vanishing caused Mr. Dean to abandon his efforts. The court, however, sitting at Valparaiso discharged but one of the defendants. The cases against the mayor and alderman were "dismissed," leaving the way open for the state to file new charges if it desires.

That just ground for dissatisfaction with conditions at Gary exists is indicated by the following extract from an editorial that appeared in *The Tribune* of that city under date of April 13, 1912, entitled: "It Is the Truth that Hurts:"

> For a minute look at the city administration of Gary in the face. Drop any sentiments of past disagreements and predilections.
>
> The city engineer, who, as a member of the board of public works, is passing this year on contracts aggregating over a million dollars, by HIS OWN TESTIMONY IN HIS TRIAL AT VALPARAISO, IS A GRAFTER. He confessed on the stand to an agreement to make a profit of $3000 on a lot, which he

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[2] See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. 1, p. 504.

was to buy for Thomas B. Dean for his heating plant. He was not in the real estate business. He could buy the lot no cheaper than anybody else could have purchased it. Dean could have bought at the same figure himself. But he tells Williston to buy the lot at one price and sell it to him at a price netting the city engineer $3000. Dean paid $300 on advance "profit" according to Williston's own testimony. Williston was to vote on this Dean franchise while this deal was pending. *The Tribune* is not changing Williston's testimony in the slightest degree.

No purchasing agent of a firm could HOLD HIS JOB FOR A SECOND AFTER SUCH A CONFESSION. No man passing on contracts for a private firm could last longer THAN THE TIME TO KICK HIM OUT AFTER HE HAD TESTIFIED TO TAKING A "PROFIT" OF $3000 FROM A MAN WHO WAS ASKING A CONTRACT.

Yet Knotts' city engineer is sitting on the board of public works awarding contracts, kept there to act as a puppet for Knotts. *The* CONTRACTORS WHO PUT UP THE MONEY for his defense of course are getting the contracts. "Gary is too rotten," is not excessive.

Newport, Kentucky, has also received recently some undesirable advertising in the columns of the Cincinnati *Commercial Tribune.* This journal, under date of June 7, 1912, says that there have been rumors of graft in Newport for some time and that certain of the city and county officials were openly accused of irregularities in their accounts. To the loose methods in vogue in the keeping and examination of the official books is charged the responsibility for the boldness of certain delinquents. Expert accountants from New York are now making a thorough and searching examination of Newport's official records. Their report will soon determine the extent to which the rumors are based on actual crookedness.

The western coast has been comparatively free from reports of graft exposures and prosecutions for the past few months. In Washington, forged warrants to the amount of $190 by a clerk in the controller's office in Tacoma constitute that state's sole contribution to municipal wrong doing that has come to light.

California seems to be resting on its late dishonors.

In Oregon there are developments that promise to be serious. On June 27, Mayor A. G. Rushlight, Chief of Police Slover, Captain of Police Baty and Detective Maddux and Reid, all of Portland, were indicted by the county grand jury for alleged conspiracy to bribe Deputy District Attorney Frank Collier. The deputy district attorney had charge of the May grand jury that was investigating the actions of the police department and the indicted officials are alleged to have engaged in a plot to entrap him.[3]

In addition to Chicago's constructive work in her building department, the law-breaking saloon as a factor in illegal voting and attendant graft received deserved attention from the Citizens Association of that city. Four indictments charging serious violations of the election laws in connection with the procurement of illegal voting were returned by the Cook

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[3] It seems to be a case of the accused "getting the drop" on the accuser.—THE EDITOR.

County grand jury on May 29, 1912, on evidence obtained by the Citizens' Association. Among the defendants is William McGovern, named in four indictments. The investigator of the Association was Robert J. McKnight who seems to have done his work thoroughly.

Concerning the notorious character of the McGovern saloons the report of the Citizens Association gives interesting testimony:

> The McGoverns have for years been operating law-breaking saloons of the lowest type. On September 25, 1905, Mayor Dunne revoked the license of their then notorious place at 57 North Clark Street. The license was restored later, however, on the false pretext that the place had been sold. In the following year our investigators reported the place to be one of the worst in the city, harboring disreputable women and criminals. In 1907 John McGovern was indicted by two successive grand juries, on evidence furnished by the Citizens' Association, for conducting his place at 57 North Clark Street in a disorderly manner and he was subsequently found guilty and fined under both of these indictments. Both of the grand juries which returned these indictments emphatically recommended the revocation of McGovern's license, along with others.
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> The license was not revoked and McGovern continued to operate the place in the same fashion. In 1910, when the Citizens' Association made a similar investigation, this place and McGovern's saloon at 659 North Clark Street were found to be operating in the same illegal and indecent manner and repeated reports to this effect were made to the chief of police, with the suggestion that the license of both places ought to be revoked.

That these offenders are typical and that their overthrow will do much to clear up the illegal election centers is the opinion of the Association:

> The Citizens' Association is deeply interested in the primary election fraud cases above mentioned not only because the offenses exposed strike at the root of decent government, but because the methods and men involved are typical. There can be no doubt but that at most elections in recent years the keepers of tough lodging houses and saloons in the so-called river wards have procured the casting of thousands of illegal votes by means above outlined.
>
> Through their ability to deliver illegal votes in support of the candidates favored by ward bosses, these keepers of tough lodging houses and saloons have been able to gain such immunity that their disorderly places have been exempted from conforming to laws and police regulations that were enforced against competitors who refused to join in stuffing the registration lists.

C. R. Atkinson.[4]

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[4] Since Dr. Atkinson prepared his article there have been a number of disclosures of graft, notably in New York and Detroit. Some of these will be treated of separately in the department of Events and Personalia, and Dr. Atkinson will contribute a further article to the January issue on the same subject.

Dr. Atkinson has been an active worker in the People's Institute of New-York and in the West End Civic Club instituted by the Henry Street settlement established by the Children's Aid Society. After taking his doctor's degree at Columbia he became professor of political economy at Lawrence College.—Editor.

AN INTERNATIONAL CONSIDERATION OF THE LIQUOR QUESTION

THERE will be held in Paris in January, 1913, a meeting of the international committee for the consideration of the liquor question. In many respects this is the most ambitious effort so far made to solve some of the phases of this very difficult problem.

A year ago Count Louis Sharzynski, of St. Petersburg, representing the Russian government, visited America for the purpose of organizing the American section of the international committee, a task he assigned, after a tour of the country and consultation with leading men, to the National Municipal League. This the League undertook appointing the committee the names of which will be shortly announced.

The League's relation to the committee ceases with the formation of the American section, although its own committee on the liquor problem will maintain sympathetic relations with it.

The international committee has been organized purely for scientific study. It was instigated by the True Temperance Society of Great Britain which has among its members many men prominent in social, political and scientific circles. The sections already formed in France, Austria, Italy, Switzerland, Russia and Germany, contain even more imposing names of men who stand at the head of world affairs. The president of the Swiss Republic, the prime minister of Russia, several cabinet officers of other countries, and men of large attainment in other walks of life have accepted membership in the different sections.

At the meeting in Paris Count Louis Sharzynski submitted an outline for consideration, of which the following is a brief summary:

One of the first aims, he states, should be to show clearly the social, economic and hygienic effects of the consumption of liquor and also the practical working of the state monopoly system of selling liquor.

Treating the subject under these several heads, Count Sharzynski suggests as topics of inquiry:

I. THE SOCIAL EFFECT OF A LARGER OR SMALLER CONSUMPTION OF LIQUOR

1. Nationality as a basis of study: In large countries, such as Russia, one must consider as a basis of every social inquiry the ethnological and climatic differences in the population. The effects of the use and, in a greater degree, of the abuse of liquors, differ as do the varied nationalities which that great country comprises. For instance, the Finns are not greatly inclined to the use of liquor; but an over indulgence in it drives the Finn to violent excesses and leads to affrays. In Great Russia, the abuse shows mainly in an indifference to getting or keeping money and the drunkard develops vanity and ostentation, beyond his means, often resulting in financial ruin. The Poles, under the influence of liquor, become gay and develop marked erotic tendencies, threatening the peace of family life.

In Little Russia, the national laziness and indifference are greatly accentuated by the immoderate use of liquor. This is bad for the welfare of the people.

In short, one cannot measure the influence of intoxicants upon the differing nationalities of Russia by any common and unvarying scale; ethnology and climate must be taken into consideration. And it is important to note that the differences of character and habits are far greater between the lower classes in the respective nationalities than among the upper classes. In the upper classes culture and education smooth the differences and these tend to uniformity and a common level.

2. The level of culture: Liquors affect the educated in ways quite different from the effect on those less well educated. Our inquiries should show whether higher culture raises or decreases the consumption of liquor and what influence, direct or indirect, an absence of culture has in this regard.

3. The influence of religion: It would be useful to inquire as to the religious faiths prevailing in the different nationalities of the Empire, as one of the social aspects of the problem; to determine the real depth and tone of the religious feeling in each (irrespective of doctrinal or church affiliations), and to ascertain to what extent the clergy exert a real influence on the people and how they use that influence with regard to the abuse of liquor.

4. The moral attitude of the several nationalities: (a) The family life; (b) the prevalence of divorce.

5. Criminality: (a) The number and kind of crimes, with a comparison of the figures showing the relative consumption of liquor in the respective committees; (b) the prisons. Are abstainers right who maintain that under prohibition the prisons would be empty, on the theory that nine-tenths of the crimes are due to liquor? Prison-managers might give useful information as to the extent, in their opinion, to which crimes are really committed under the influence of alcohol or if it is merely an alleged excuse.

6. Suicides. The number and causes and their relation to the liquor habit.

7. Accidents: (a) Accidents in general; (b) in factories and industrial enterprises. The number in each occupation and their relation to the liquor habit, having especial regard to the number in which intoxication is pleaded by way of excuse by those causing the accident.

8. Higher schools: (a) To learn, from the higher instruction, the number of total abstainers among the pupils and of those who use liquor to excess and the comparison of the relative progress of the moderate drinkers and of the teetotallers; (b) the middle schools; (c) national schools. It would be still more important to have accurate information as to the parents of children in the national schools and to compare the progrees of the children of teetotallers with that of the children of moderate drinkers.

9. The army: (a) The temperance question among the soldiers; (b) the influence of service in the army on the use of liquors.

10. The propagation of temperance.

II. THE ECONOMIC EFFECT OF THE CONSUMPTION OF LIQUORS

11. An inquiry into the economic condition of the different nationalities, to determine whether improvement in the economic condition raises or

lowers the consumption of liquors and whether, conversely, higher or lower consumption influences the economic position of the masses.

12. Savings banks.
13. The arrears: How influenced by liquor consumption.
14. Charitable institutions.
15. The liquor budget: Abstainers show the large amounts lost in expenditure for liquor. It is important to ascertain the items on the other side. How many people live on farm products used in making liquors? How many on the trade thereby caused? How many are supported by the manufacture of liquors and in the trade thereby caused? Also, how much money is earned in this way and to what extent does the state benefit by the taxes levied, in aid of the national budget, on the production and sale of liquor.

III. THE EFFECT OF THE CONSUMPTION OF LIQUOR ON THE HEALTH OF THE NATION

16. On the physical welfare of the population.
17. Births.
18. Illnesses in general.
19. Hospitals: An inquiry with regard to the number of patients in all public hospitals, the proportion of ailments attributable to the abuse of liquor, whether directly by the patients themselves or by their parents.
20. Psychic disorders.
21. Lunatics.
22. Inebriates.
23. Mortality.

IV. STATE MONOPOLY OF SPIRITS

24. Effect on consumption of liquor: (a) Influence in different nationalities in Russia. Official statistics show that the state monopoly increased the consumption in the Eastern provinces and decreased it in the Western provinces; but the precise causes of these differing results have not yet been demonstrated. Official statistics show that in the years just before the introduction of the state monopoly the consumption of liquor decreased in thirty-one provinces and increased in forty-four provinces. Since differing nationalities and races are found in the same district or towns, official statistics which give the consumption per head in a given locality afford no sufficient guide as to the use of liquor among different nationalities living in the same district or town. Such statistics are difficult to procure; but the very intelligent corps of the internal revenue offices would be of great service in helping us to get them. (b) The influence of the opening and closing of the monopoly shops on the increase or decrease of the consumption.

OUTLINE OF THE STUDY OF ALCOHOLISM IN ITALY[1]

There is a geographical difference in the use of liquors in Italy.

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Since 1881 official statistics are available and figures can be had showing:

1. The number of deaths from chronic alcoholism.
2. Number of psychoses induced by alcoholism.

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[1] Translated by Anna Florence Woodruff from the French version.

3. Amount of sales of liquor.
4. Consumption of alcohol, of wine, of beer.
5. Number of soldiers punished for drunkenness.
6. Number of deaths from accident due to drunkenness.
7. Treatment of these data by way of explanation and criticism.

II

There should be study of alcoholism as to its effects on individuals; character of alcoholic liquors and their effects on the human organism:

1. Statisics showing the causes of deaths enable us to separate those due to alcoholism and to arrange them by *sex*, by *profession*, by *age* and to show the influence upon the number of such deaths of season and the demographic condition of the locality.

2. Study of cases in lunatic asylums will allow us to consider lunatics afflicted with alcoholic psychoses from the point of view of *sex*, of *age*, of *profession*, of *heredity*, of *season*, of the clinical "type," and of the duration and end of sickness and of *relapses*.

3. In hospitals and at clinics we can amplify and complete our knowledge in the respects already mentioned and from these cases, not sent to asylums, can be gained those facts which are difficult or impossible to acquire in asylums, such as the day of the week of admission, the conduct of alcoholic patients who have been treated in hospitals, or clinically, after dismissal from asylums, as cured or as not afflicted with psychosis. It is especially in the general clinics of obstetrics, pediatrics, of psychology and of neuropathology, etc., that these lines of study could be followed.

4. So, also, in prisons, asylums for insane criminals and in ordinary asylums one can study the alcoholic criminals with regard to their crimes, sentences, age, sex, mental and physical characteristics, etc.

III

The study, which can be aided by mathematical methods, of the correlative relations between the different symptoms of alcoholism, as shown in time and space, and the different phenomena (important as to number), which may reasonably be caused or influenced by alcoholism or which might affect it. This study would show the relations to the subject of the varying conditions as to riches, intellectual culture, criminality, insanity, suicide, of the consumption of liquor and of the physical development gained by conscripts.

IV

1. It will be useful to address questions to the health officers in the several municipalities (the *medici condotti*), to learn the frequency, intensity and the causes and effects of alcoholism.

2. It will also be worth while to study the workings of the Anti-alcoholic League in Italy and the effects of its propaganda.

3. And it will be necessary to study statistics leading to a trustworthy estimate of the amount of danger which habitual alcoholic drinkers cause to everyday life and to consider what measures should be taken for social defence.

ENGLISH PROGRAM[2]

1. The influence of the usage of alcoholic drinks.
2. The nutritive value of alcoholic drinks.
3. Alcohol and other ingredients in alcoholic drinks.
4. What one would call a moderate use of drinks in conformity with the age of the person, the social class to which they belong, and their personal habits.
5. The influence of a moderate use of drinks and total abstinence has on: (a) Longevity, (b) Aptitude for work.
6. Alcoholism and sickness.
7. Alcoholism and physical ills.
8. The influence of drinks on criminality.
9. The influence of alcoholic drinks on mental ills.
10. The influence of alcoholic drinks on the economic state of the poor classes.
11. Relations between the importance of recompense and the consumption of alcoholic drinks.
12. The diminution of the abuse of liquors.
13. The best ways to encourage temperance.
14. Reform of the sales of liquor.

THE SWISS PROGRAM[3]

Sent by M. Ruchet, president of the Swiss Confederation and honorary president of the Swiss committee.

I

Investigation of the primary and secondary causes of alcoholism.

1. Statistics of the production and importation of different alcoholic drinks, wine, beer, cider, and all liquors under the name of "aperitif."
2. Usual method of the consumption of these drinks.
3. Statistics of alcoholics: (a) In the asylums for the treatment of drunkards, (b) In the lunatic asylums, (c) In hospitals and sanitoriums, (d) In penitentiaries and houses of corrections, (e) In houses of discipline.
4. Questions to the superintendants of institutions for the abnormal and feeble-minded.
5. Inquiry about the families who take brandy in their food. (Schwarzes.)
6. Questions to be answered by the military doctors who make visits to see about sanitation.
7. Inquiry in the community on the number of drunkards during a definite period.
8. Information from the courts on the rôle alcoholism plays as the cause of misdemeanors and crimes, bankruptcies, divorces, etc.
9. Influence of drink on accidents.

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[2] Presented by one of the members of the committee for the approbation of the committee.

[3] Translated by Anna Florence Woodruff.

10. Practice among the young students "Biercomment."
11. Reports on the activity of societies having undertaken a struggle against alcoholism.

II

Preventative and curative measures against alcoholism. These measures will not be able to be determined exactly before the result of the inquiry.

They depend on:

1. The social conditions which predispose towards intemperance: (a) Atavism and hereditary predisposition, (b) Education of children and adolescents, (c) Hygienic conditions, particularly in regards to lodging and habitation.
2. The influence of alcoholism on the drinker: (a) That which predisposes him to sensualism, to insanity and to suicide, (b) That which diminishes his powers of resistance against disease, (c) That which makes difficult the issue of healthy children.
3. The influence of alcoholism on the family and its economic consequences.

Meanwhile one can already foretell the following measures:

1. Sanitary surveillance of kindergartens and primary schools. Female doctors and inspectors.
2. Commencement of committees on public health; inspection of dwellings etc.
3. Legislative methods: (a) Limitation of the sale of liquor, (b) Severity in the conditions for obtaining licenses, (c) Raising the minimum of the free sale of drinks, (b) Withdrawal of their license as a punishment for those inn-keepers who either give something to drink to those already drunk or to children, (e) Alcoholics and those arrested while in a drunken state under penalty of being deprived of their liberty, (f) Deprivation of the right to vote, (g) Confinement in a workhouse, (h) Withdrawal of paternal authority over the child and education of the children at the expense of the state or as much as possible from the parents.
4. Grants for the building of asylums for drunkards.
5. All other measures which results of the inquiry could suggest.

CAMILLUS G. KIDDER.[4]

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[4] Orange, N. J., former chairman of the excise board of Essex County and now chairman of the National Municipal League's committee on the liquor problem.

DEPARTMENT OF REPORTS

Edited by John A. Fairlie

Professor of Political Science, University of Illinois

Municipal Finance Reports.—A report of the financial transactions of a municipality should be so drawn as to accomplish two definite objects: (1) The primary object, to demonstrate that the finance officers have accurately accounted for the moneys on hand at the beginning of the year and for such moneys as have been received from revenue and from other sources during the year, such an accounting being in sufficient detail to show that the expenditures have been applied to the purposes and within the amounts designated by the budgetary appropriations and by ordinances of council; and (2) the secondary object, to supply the public officials and resident citizens with the means of determining in a measure to what extent the public funds have been wisely expended, wherein economy has led to parsimony, and wherein money has been wasted.

The primary object is easy of accomplishment and as it is of only local importance will not be discussed in this short article. To only a limited extent can financial reports accomplish the second of these objects. If in one of the offices there has been expended for clerical services or for stationery 50 or 100 per cent more money than was expended for these objects the year before, it is not very difficult to determine whether the expenditures of the one year were too small or those of the other too large, or that the proper expenditure was measured by the one amount or the other or by some intermediate amount. A statement in detail of such expenditures will point the inquirer to such items as indicate possible extravagance resulting in waste of revenue, and he is thus enabled to study the conditions surrounding the expenditure. No cost accounting can determine the expense that should be applied to the filling of a ledger, or the issuing of licenses and permits, unless the systems of accounting and recording and the volumes of business are known and are comparable. Hence, the necessity for inquiry into the conditions, whether they are the same, or have been changed, before criticism can be defensibly lodged against such expenditures.

In the field of the larger expenditures of the city, reports limited to the financial transactions convey but little notion of economy or of waste in administration. A report may show that the city expended during the past year twice as much money for street paving, or for sewers, or for park improvement as it expended the year before. These figures tell us nothing as to the relative economy of the expenditures of the two years, they do not tell us whether in the former year or the latter the expenditures of the street department, the sewer department, or the park department were best administered; they do not tell us what asset or added asset was secured through the expenditure of the peoples money; and it may be true that the greater economy was practiced during the year in which the greater costs were met or liabilities therefor incurred.

Some heads of city departments have endeavored to supply in their reports a measure of efficiency by setting over against the payments made through or for them a record of the permanent properties constructed or reconstructed by them during the year. Where this is done in detail sufficient to show the entire cost of an improvement, with the units of area, or length and diameter, the city has furnished to those who would study its efficiency a measure which may be applied locally from year to year; a measure which, after applying corrective coefficients for fluctuations in the cost of labor and materials, will enable the inquirer to determine the relative merits or defects of administration of such department for a given year as compared with some other year. Measures of efficiency to be of real value must be more than locally applicable; they must be applied to similar works in other cities if they are to lead to the knowledge of efficiency or the discovery of inefficiency. Out of this necessity has arisen the demand for uniformity in accounts of financial transactions and records of physical construction.

During the last ten years the bureau of the census, at Washington, has been endeavoring to report comparable statistics of the financial transactions of cities having a population of over 30,000. Ten years ago the systems of accounting were almost as numerous as the cities reported; municipal accounting lacked a commonly accepted classification, and terms employed therein were given widely varying meanings. Out of all the confusion of methods and terms, the bureau sought to present statistics that would assist those interested in one of these cities to compare the operations and accomplishments of their city with those of the other cities reported. To do this necessitated the expenditure of much time in the classification of data in greater detail than usually reported and frequently along lines entirely different from those followed in the reports of the cities themselves. It was a natural result, therefore, that the census bureau should become vitally interested in the adoption of a uniform system of accounting in order that its work might be productive of more accurate results, and might be much more economically accomplished.

In all of this, however, the census bureau being a branch of the federal government, could only advise and encourage those who, from day to day, were writing down the records of transactions. As these officials, through their discussions in conventions and inter-communication, sought for light upon the subject, they pointed out the obstacles to progress, the charter requirements and restrictions that prevented the immediate adoption of such systems of accounts as seemed best suited to the purpose. With the difficulties clearly pointed out, the states are beginning to supply such supervision of accounting and reporting for cities as will eventually relieve the census bureau from the necessity of classifying transactions by the examination of original data and vouchers, and will reduce its work to the compilation of data published by the cities. The word "eventually" is used advisedly, and this statement is not a prophecy of what is hoped for, but a prediction of the result of causes now operative. Before this result can be accomplished, however, a vast amount of effort and much time must be devoted to the development and perfection of the plans and purposes which have been so recently undertaken.

The state bureaus of accountancy in Massachusetts, Ohio, Indiana, Iowa, and Wisconsin, have already accomplished much within their respective states. Where these bureaus prescribe forms for the budgets and accounts of municipalities, as is done by the Ohio bureau of inspection and supervision of public offices, the financial data reported by municipalities become comparable for all cities within the state to such a degree as the local officials correctly interpret and faithfully carry out the forms and recommendations prescribed by the state bureau.

Although this process may be carried on until the highest state of perfection has been reached, there remains another step that is necessary to insure the comparability of financial data reported by cities in different states. This further process consists in the harmonization of the work of the different state bureaus. Toward this end much progress has already been made. There are, of course, many obstacles to be overcome in securing legislation such as is necessay to set up for municipalities new provisions in place of the archaic charter provisions, special acts, and different forms of practice prevailing in many of the cities. This is true in some of the states having state bureaus to whom reports are made by the cities; and until such obstacles shall have been overcome the reports of municipalities must vary widely in their character, and deductions drawn from them are likely to contain a large percentage of error. It must, of necessity, be many years before all of the states shall undertake the supervision of public offices to the extent of prescribing forms of accounting and reporting.

It is worthy of note that the advance towards uniform accounting is not confined entirely to cities within states having state bureaus of accountancy. A large number of cities in other states have, on the initiative of their finance offices, brought their systems of accounting as nearly as their charters will allow into agreement with the forms prescribed by the bureau of the census. The comptroller's report of the city of Pittsburgh, follows very closely the classification set forth in the principal schedule of the bureau of the census, and the recently organized board of education for the city of Pittsburgh has adopted as its basis of accounts and reports the classification employed in the school schedule used by the census bureau. The report of the auditor of the city of Los Angeles adopts the classification of the census bureau almost in its entirety. In the first place the budget is prepared in accordance with this classification, and the auditor in his annual report carries the classification into his statement of the general balance sheet, the inventory of property belonging to the departments, the statement of expenditures, the reconciliation of the auditor's and treasurer's balances, and the statement of the departmental receipts.

The two cities mentioned, Pittsburgh and Los Angeles, are but examples of a large number of cities in a number of states in which there is no state control over municipal accounts. Such cities are pioneers in the field of better accounting and better government, and their influence will sooner or later bring into their states the advantages to be derived from such uniformity and control as can be brought about and exercised only by a state board having authority not only to inspect but to supervise public offices.

A leaflet containing four diagrams of the receipts and expenditures of the board of education of St. Louis, Mo., will be of interest to any one having the opportunity to examine them. The first two diagrams set forth certain information for the years 1910-11 in shaded sectors of circles, the first showing the ten different sources of receipts with what percentages each forms of the total, and the second showing the three principal heads of expenditures, one being outlays, another salaries of supervisors and teachers, and the third representing the other expenses of school administration, with the percentage of each of the three forms of expenditures. Upon the same pages as these two diagrams are presented the figures upon which the diagrams are based. The third and fourth diagrams present the receipts and payments for the same purposes as shown in the circles for the years 1900–01 to 1910–11, the limit of each expenditure being shown by a curve and the different forms of expenditures extended one after the other by shaded areas limited by the several curves, the different figures upon which the areas are based being given upon the several fields. All of these diagrams call attention in an emphatic way to the data upon which they are based, and are helpful in impressing upon the public mind the local information which they convey.

The value of a report of the financial transactions of a city depends somewhat upon the promptness of its appearance after the close of the financial year the transactions of which are therein reported. A few of the cities almost invariably have their reports in print and ready for distribution within a month or six weeks after the close of the fiscal year; while in other cities the financial report is delayed for months, and occasionally a whole year intervenes between the final transactions and the appearance of the printed report. The same may be said of the relative value of the reports issued by the state bureaus and that issued by the bureau of the census, one of the greatest criticisms brought against the latter being the lateness of its appearance.

In many of the cities the census report must be prepared from original data, either because of lack of a printed report or because such report in no wise conforms to the classification of the census. It thus happens that a great deal of time, on the part of the field agents, is required in preparing these reports. Furthermore, cities that close their fiscal year after February 1 have their transactions included with those of other cities whose fiscal years close as late as January 31 of the following year. The only remedy for this latter condition would be for the cities to close their fiscal years at the same time or within a few months of the same time, as at the present time they close during almost every month in the year. The work of preparing reports promptly, however, lies within the field of corrective influences, the remedy being such improvement in the method of reporting by municipalities as will simplify to a great degree the labor necessary to reconstruct the data into such form as will be comparable between the different cities. This remedy lies with the cities themselves and such of the state bureaus as may have supervision over them. With this defect remedied their data would become promptly available for the census bureau and would insure a much higher degree of accuracy, thereby lessening the amount of examination and comparison that up to this time has been necessary in the office at Washington, before such data could be safely given out to the public.

The financial reports of cities, as has been pointed out above, will leave untold the story of economy or waste until there shall be perfected a generally accepted standard for reporting the accomplishments of physical construction, that shall so correlate the financial and physical data that the student may compare unit costs, and it is to this branch of the subject that the pioneer in the field of municipal accounting and reporting must now apply his efforts.

City Controller's Annual Report, Philadelphia, 1911; Report of the City Auditor, Boston, 1911–12; Comptroller's Report, Baltimore, Md., 1911; Report of the City Comptroller, Kansas City, Mo., for the fiscal year 1911; City and County of Denver, Report of the Auditor, 1911; Report of the Comptroller of the City of St. Louis, 1910–11; Annual Report, City Comptroller, City of St. Paul, 1911; City Auditor, Annual Report, Providence, R. I., 1911.

Morris J. Hole.[1]

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Philadelphia Budget Program.—The proposals included in the budget program of the Philadelphia bureau of municipal research are based on the theory that the function of the budget-making (legislative) body is to pass upon each question of general policy involved in the management of the city and that the function of the "administration" is to carry out those policies within the limitations and according to the prescriptions made by the budget-making body. The budget of estimates is thus a program of work which the administration proposes to carry on in the interest of community welfare and a statement of the financial provisions which are considered necessary to carry out this program. The budget of appropriations is a program of work which the administration is authorized and required to execute.

In its consideration of the program proposed by the administration, the main questions of policy upon which the budget-making body is called upon to act have relation to:

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[1] Bureau of the Census, Washington, D. C.

a. What work is essential to the effective promotion of community welfare?
b. What organization is necessary to the proper execution of this work?
c. What equipment, supplies, services or other objects of expenditure are required by this organization for the performance of its functions?
d. In what way may the authorized expenditures best be applied by the governmental organization in the performance of its functions—i.e., in administrative activities; in activities of operation and maintenance; or in acquiring permanent properties (capital outlays)?
e. What funds shall be provided for the support of each activity of each branch of the public service and how shall these funds be provided—by tax levies, special assessments, issue of bonds, or otherwise?

As a basis for the intelligent consideration of these questions of policy, the items of estimated expense for each department, bureau, division, and office of the Philadelphia city government, are grouped by functions and classified uniformally under the following seven main headings by objects of expenditure:

1. Personal service—including (*a*) salaries of regular employees; (*b*) salaries of temporary employees; (*c*) wages of regular employees; (*d*) wages of temporary employees.
3. Services other than personal—including transportation; subsistence; communication service; printing; advertising; heat, light and power.
3. Materials used in repairs and replacements.
4. Supplies—including stationery; fuel; cleaning and toilet supplies; wearing apparel; forage; provisions; ammunition; and tools.
5. Equipment — including livestock; wagons and harness; furniture and fittings; automobiles; machinery and apparatus; and parts of machinery.
6. Structures and non-structural improvement to land—including buildings; pavements; bridges; and drains.
7. Land and interest in lands.

The more important advantages which the revised estimates and a budget based upon them, are intended to provide, may be summarized as follows:

To make each appropriation item so definite that its purpose may be clearly ascertained.

To prevent, by proper classification and arrangement, the duplication of requests and appropriations in different bureaus, or in different divisions of the same bureau, for the same item of expense.

To provide ready means for determining whether items requested in one department may more properly belong in another department better equipped to handle the special work concerned.

To afford the best possible opportunity for administrative officers to present definite and convincing evidence of the needs of their several departments; and to make it possible for councils to require such evidence of administrative officers.

To provide a ready means of comparing specific items of actual expense with specific items of requested appropriations.

To furnish the controller with means for deciding definitely whether or not claims presented to him for audit are properly chargeable to the several appropriation items.

To state definitely the number of employees and the rate of compensation for which each item of salaries and wages is requested; and thereby enable the controller to require the certification and approval of payrolls for payment, in such form as to hold officials so certifying responsible for the truth or falsity of the facts certified to.

To make possible a strict enforcement of the law which limits the incurring of liabilities to the amounts of the several appropriation items.

To enable councils to ascertain whether or not money is spent for the purposes contemplated in the appropriations.

To make it possible, by means of a "functional" classification of items under each organization unit, for councils to pass intelligently upon each question of general policy involved in the consideration of the budget; and for the mayor to approve or disapprove items in the budget with due regard to efficiency in the public service as it affects the health, education, safety, recreation, and convenience of the community.

To make it possible for councils, the mayor, and citizens, by utilizing summary statements, to consider the budget as a constructive community program and not merely as unrelated appropriation items; and to determine the relative public importance of each function and activity in the general administrative scheme of the city government.

To furnish the basis for the fullest and most intelligent consideration by councils, the mayor, citizens, taxpayers, and the public press of the financial and social program contemplated in the budget.

J. D. Burks.[1]

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British Municipal Accountants.—The Report of the Proceedings of the twenty-sixth Annual General Meeting of the British Institute of Municipal Treasurers and Accountants (Incorporated) impresses one with the thoroughness of its preparation, with the scope of the subjects treated, and with its usefulness to those who are engaged in the management of the finances of our public corporations.

Many of the terms used in the report are relatively unfamiliar to American ears, as for instance, "local rating," "rateable value," "compounding allowances" and "local spending authorities," but the subjects dealt with are none the less interesting.

Much attention in recent years has been given by American accountants to the standardization of forms of account. A similar work is being prosecuted by the Institute in conjunction with the representatives of various government departments.

A municipal loans exchange as a feature of the institute is a novel one. This activity affords to municipal authorities a clearing house for exchanges, borrowings and investments. The loans arranged in the year under review amounted to $900,000. The exchange should be particularly helpful to small boroughs in obtaining modest loans at lowest market rates.

The report deals ably with the necessity of providing adequate capital for the trading concerns of municipal governments, and to meet current expenditure prior to collection of taxes. Revenue bonds meet this latter need in some of our American cities. In Great Britain at present the use of loan moneys is restricted to capital expenditures for permanent improvements. The use of the term "working capital" is a happy one and indicates that British municipal accountants have arrived at the conclusion that we are fast coming to in this country, namely, that the problems of public finance are similar to the problems of private business, and the application of the terms of the latter to the problems of the former takes municipal business out of the mystic circle and makes it more readily understandable to the average business man. In this connection, it is interesting to note that City Controller John M. Walton, of Philadelphia, has developed in his recent annual reports a series of statements that present the financial condition of the city in balance sheet form, with separate statements for the general account, capital account and special and trust accounts together with the operation (revenue and expense) accounts, surplus and fund accounts.

The enlargement of areas of local government is suggested by the president of the institute as a subject that will assume increasing importance in the near future. His observations upon the large numbers of people earning their livelihoods in urban centers and residing in outlying districts under a different local government with the consequent loss to the city of the taxes paid by these country and suburban dwellers, is as pertinent to American municipal finance as it is to British.

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[1] Director, Philadelphia bureau municipal research.

W. S. Carver, city accountant of Oxford, in his paper on the "Taxation of Land Values in Relation to Local Rating" brought down upon his head considerable adverse criticism from representatives of industrial cities in his suggestions to relieve real estate of some of its tax burden by introducing a personal property tax, a municipal income tax, duties on consumable goods brought into towns, and a tax on site values. In advancing these suggestions he took issue with some of the theories of Henry George. Members from industrial cities defended the single tax on land and declared these other forms of taxation to be unnecessary burdens upon industry.

"Compounding Allowances," the title of the paper by Roger D. Lambert, A.S.A.A., borough treasurer of West Hartlepool, sounds strange to American ears, due to our unfamiliarity, at least in many parts of the United States, with the practice. The meaning of this term is the allowances to owners of real estate for paying taxes on behalf of their tenants. This system is not common to the United States where the tenant is not taxed as an occupier and hence the discussion to us is academic rather than real.

G. R. Butterworth, F.S.A.A., borough accountant of Hastings, in his paper on "The Relationship between Rates, Local Debt, and Rateable Value" draws a clear distinction between debt created for remunerative enterprises and debt created for non-remunerative enterprises and suggests that the former be not dependent upon the taxable value of properties but that the latter be limited. Mr. Butterworth supports his contention by showing that remunerative debt, in the main, has the effect of reducing rates and consequently of relieving the burden of charge on property, while unremunerative debt increases rates, and renders them less elastic owing to fixity of the annual charge.

That the high license law operates directly in reducing the value of licensed properties for local assessments is forcibly presented by F. A. Inglis, F. S.A.A., borough accountant of Lambeth, in his paper on "The Effect of the New License Duties upon Local Assessments." The license tax which goes into the imperial treasury is thus augmented at the expense of the sources of taxation for local government bodies.

The 1911 report of the Institute shows a healthy growth in membership. It has a number of student members, which system should commend itself to similar organizations in the United States. The students are given a preliminary and a final examination with money prizes for the first, second and third best among those who pass. This system insures a corps of young men constantly in training for the higher positions in the financial departments of government.

The report is well worth the most careful reading by fiscal government officials everywhere.

W. B. Hadley.[1]

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Municipal Finances in Rhode Island and California.—Two additional states, at opposite sides of the continent, have joined the list of those publishing official compilations of municipal finance statistics.

The first report for the cities and towns of Rhode Island appears as part 2 of the annual report of the Rhode Island Bureau of Industrial Statistics, for 1911. This has been prepared from the printed reports and statements of the local treasurers, in most cases for the fiscal year ending in 1910. The tables published show, for each of the six cities and thirty-two towns in the state, statistics of property valuations, tax rates, indebtedness, and current receipts and expenditures, classified according to the schedules of the United States bureau of the census. In summarizing the results of this compilation, Commissioner

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[1] Of the city controller's office, Philadelphia.

Webb recognizes the lack of perfection, which could hardly be avoided in a work undertaken without any special appropriation and without any authority over the local accounts. He also recommends legislation to aid in preparing similar reports in the future, and to regulate the borrowing of money by towns, similar to the certification of town notes recently established in Massachusetts.

The state controller of California has published the first Annual Report of Financial Transactions of Municipalities and Counties of California for the Year 1911 (Superintendent of State Printing, Sacramento, 1912), authorized by act of April 21, 1911. This includes statistics for 183 cities and towns and less detailed figures for each of the 58 counties, following in outline the forms approved by the National Municipal League and used by the United States census bureau. The data for cities and towns includes assessed valuation, total tax rate, bonded debt, receipts classified by sources, and expenditures classified by functions. There are per capita figures for assessed valuation, bonded debt and total expenditures; and additional data as to municipal water works, electric light plants, gas works and municipal wharves. The municipalities and counties are arranged alphabetically, which makes more difficult the comparison of data for places of similar size than an arrangement in order of population.

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Municipal Debts in Massachusetts.—The Report of the Special Investigation relative to the Indebtedness of the Cities and Towns of the Commonwealth, by the Massachusetts bureau of statistics, published under date of April 15, 1912, is a comprehensive compilation of 286 pages, presenting in considerable detail the statistical data relating to the debts of the Massachusetts municipalities. A short introduction analyses the general results of the investigation and makes the following recommendations for action by the legislature:

1. That the authorized purposes of loans be increased; and the issue of loans for other purposes be prohibited.
2. That a limit be placed on the amount that may be borrowed in anticipation of revenue.
3. That a uniform penalty be imposed on overdue taxes.
4. That the authority to establish sinking funds be repealed; and that all cities and towns be required hereafter to provide for the payment of debt by the use of serial bonds.
5. That the limit on the amount that may be raised by taxation in cities for municipal purposes be raised or abolished.
6. That the bureau of statistics be furnished with means necessary to enable it to keep the data it now gathers up to date, and to issue its reports on municipal finances more promptly.

These recommendations may well be given serious consideration in other states, as well as in Massachusetts.

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American Comptrollers Association.—The *Proceedings of the Sixth Annual Convention of the National Association of Comptrollers and Accounting Officers* held at Washington, D. C. June 8–10, 1911[1] includes, among others, papers on budgets, balance sheets and standardization by Le Grand Powers, chief statistician of the census bureau; F. A. Cleveland, chairman of the President's commission on economy and efficiency; Duncan Mac Innes, chief accountant, department of finance, New York City; and Edmund D. Fischer, deputy comptroller of New York City.

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Recent Reports on Housing[2]—In a report on housing conditions in Salem, Mass., published a few months ago by

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[1] The Hector Press. New York, 1912.

[2] *Housing reports—United States and Canada.*

Albany, N. Y., 1911. Appeal to the Public Spirited Citizens of Albany. Report of Committee on the Better Housing of the Poor in Albany, appointed at a public meeting December 20, 1910.

Austin Texas, 1911. The Housing Problem in Texas. (All the reports on Texas cities by Mr. Briggs have been brought together and published in pamthe Salem Associated Charities, the following extracts from English sources are quoted:

> Unsanitary housing has not attracted much attention yet in the United States, apart from two or three great cities. Public opinion on the subject of sanitary inspection and regulation appears to be in such an early stage that of those municipal committees which issue reports some do not mention it at all. . . . . In America they seem to me to be creating future slums without clearing away the existing ones.

The second quotation is from so authoritative a source as the eleventh edition of the *Enclycopaedia Britannica:*

> If American cities have nothing to learn from other countries with regard to bad housing, they have nothing to teach in the way of reform.

There is, unfortunately, much truth in the first clause of the latter extract. Certainly our American cities, small as well as large, have little or nothing to learn from Europe "with regard to bad housing." The worst that has been written about the old countries could be applied with little change except of proper names to American cities, and this not to New York, which has served as scapegoat too long; but to the smaller cities both east and west. Yet unless recent reports from abroad are misleading, the latter part of the quotation is not quite correct. We have something to teach. Though New York may not have as many "model" tenements to exhibit as Berlin, though it has not spent millions in demolishing insanitary areas and building workingmen's dwellings

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phlet form by the *Galveston-Dallas News.*) By George Waverly Briggs, *Galveston-Dallas News*, December 11, 1911.

Baltimore Md., 1907. Housing Conditions in Baltimore. Results of an investigation made by Janet E. Kemp for the A. I. C. P. and the C. O. S.

Baltimore, Md., 1909. Housing Conditions in Baltimore. By Edith Jones, *Baltimore Methodist*, November 25, 1909.

Baltimore, Md., 1911. Exchanging 70,000 Earth Closets for a $20,000,000 Sewer System—Baltimore. By J. W. Magruder, *Survey*, September 2, 1911.

Boston, Mass., 1904. Report of the Commission appointed by the Mayor to investigate Tenement-House Conditions in the City of Boston.

Boston, Mass., 1910. Report of the Housing Committee of Boston–1915.

Boston, Mass., 1911. Preliminary Report of the Housing Committee of the Economic Club of Boston.

Boston, Mass., 1911. Housing Reform in Cold Storage–Boston. By Edward T. Hartman, *Survey* January 21, 1911.

Boston, Mass., 1911. Housing Report of the Women's Municipal League of Boston. *Bulletin*, March, 1911.

Boston, Mass., 1912. Report of Tenement House Inspector, Women's Municipal League of Boston. *Bulletin*, February 1912.

Buffalo, N. Y., 1903. Housing Conditions in Buffalo. By William A. Douglas and Williams Lansing in *The Tenement House Problem*, edited by de Forest and Veiller.

Buffalo, N. Y., 1911. The Huddled Poles of Buffalo. By Frederic Kont Almy, *Survey*, February 4, 1911.

Cambridge, Mass., 1911. Eighth Annual Report of the Cambridge Anti-Tuberculosis Association. Deals chiefly with housing conditions.

Chicago, Ill., 1901. Tenement Conditions in Chicago. Report by the Investigating Committee of the City Homes Association.

Chicago, Ill., 1910. Housing of Non-Family Groups of Workingmen. By Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy, *American Journal of Sociology*, September 1910. This and four succeeding reports republished as pamphlets.

Chicago, Ill., 1910. Families in Furnished Rooms, By Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy, *American Journal of Sociology*, November, 1910.

Chicago, Ill, 1911. The Twenty-ninth Ward Back of the Yards, By Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy, *American Journal of Sociology*, January 1911.

Chicago, Ill., 1911. The West Side Revisited. By Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy, *American Journal of Sociology*, July, 1911.

Chicago, Ill., 1911. South Chicago at the Gates of the Steel Mills. By Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy, *American Journal of Sociology*, September, 1911.

Cleveland, Ohio, 1904. Housing Conditions in Cleveland. Report submitted by the Housing Problem Committee of the Chamber of Commerce, January 1, 1904.

Cleveland, Ohio, 1912. What Kind of Homes? By Howard Strong, *American City*, April, 1912; National Housing Association Publication, No. 14, April, 1912.

Columbus, Ohio, 1911. The Discoveries of Columbus. By Otto W. Davis, *Survey*, July 1. 1911.

Dallas, Texas, The Housing Problem in Texas. By George Waverly Briggs, *Galveston-Dallas News*, November, 22, 1911.

Detroit, Mich., 1911. A City Awake—Detroit. By Myron E. Adams. *Survey*, August, 5, 1911.

Fall River, Mass., 1912. Housing Conditions in at public expense, as has London, I believe that greater improvement in the housing of the mass of Manhattan's workers has been wrought during the past eleven years than in either of the European cities mentioned. Instead of providing refuges for a fraction of its people, New York squarely faced the problem of providing decent housing for all; and in that and the methods it has used, it has something to teach other countries "in the way of reform."

So much for the second quotation. As for the first, it is so evidently antiquated or based upon antiquated information that it would call for no comment were it not for its appearance in such a recent publication as the Salem annual. The list of reports which follows shows that unsanitary housing has attracted ports which have been published in attention in many of our cities. Some of these reports date back several years, but the greater number were prepared during the past two years, which have witnessed, as Mrs. Caroline Bartlett Crane says in her report on Rochester, N. Y., a "'housing awakening' . . . by all odds the most noticeable feature of social advance in America in the past two years."

In fact so numerous have been these reports, especially during the past two years, that it would be impossible to discuss them individually in a brief review. Nor is this necessary since in city after city the investigators have found the same evils, the chief difference being one of emphasis. In the list which follows I have included only those magazines of general circulation or in book and pamphlet form, and of which copies may be secured by those who are interested in housing betterment. The

Fall River. Prepared by Carol Aronovici for the Associated Charities.

Fort Worth, Texas, 1911. The Housing Problem in Texas, By George Waverly Briggs, *Galveston-Dallas News*, December 12, 1911.

Galveston, Texas, 1911. The Housing Problem in Texas. By George Waverly Briggs, *Galveston-Dallas News*, November 28, 1911.

Hamilton, Ont., 1912. Preliminary Report on the Housing Situation in Hamilton. By Dr. James Roberts, Medical Officer of Health, April 24, 1912.

Homestead, Pa., 1910. Homestead: The Households of a Mill Town. By Margaret F. Byington—Russell Sage Foundation.

Honolulu, H. T., 1912. Housing Conditions. *The Friend*, March, 1912.

Houston, Texas. The Housing Problem in Texas. By George Waverly Briggs, *Galveston-Dallas News*, December 8, 1911.

Indiana, 1908. Housing Problem in Indiana. By Albion Fellows Bacon, *Charities*, December 5, 1908.

Indiana, 1910. The Awakening of a State—Indiana. By Albion Fellows Bacon, National Housing Association Publication No. 5, December 5, 1910.

Indianapolis, Ind., 1910. Investigation of Housing Conditions in Three Districts of Indianapolis. By L. M. Campbell Adams, Indiana University Studies.

Jersey City, N. J., 1902. Housing conditions in Jersey City. By Mary Buell Sayles. Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science for July, 1902.

Jersey City, N. J. 1907. Investigation of Slavic Conditions. By Elizabeth T. White.

Kansas City, Mo., 1911. Second Annual Report, Board of Public Welfare. Summary of Housing Investigation to May 1, 1911, based upon compilations made by Mrs. Edith M. Cruise.

Kansas City, Mo., 1912. Report on Housing Conditions in Kansas City. Board of Public Welfare, June, 1912.

Louisville, Ky., 1909. Report of the Tenement House Commission of Louisville. Text by Janet E. Kemp, July 19, 1909.

Milwaukee, Wis., 1906. The Housing Problem in Wisconsin. By Edessa Kunz, Twelfth Biennial Report, Bureau of Labor and Industrial Statistics.

Milwaukee, Wis., 1910. Socialists and Slums—Milwaukee. By Carl D. Thompson, *Survey*, December 3, 1910.

Montreal, Canada, 1910. Housing Problem in Montreal. Report of the First Convention of the City Improvement League.

Nashville, Tenn., 1911. Housing Conditions of the Poor in Nashville. By Rev. A. M. Trawick, Jr., *The Missionary Voice*, May, 1911.

Nashville, Tenn., 1911. Bad Housing in Nashville. By Rev. A. M. Trawick Jr., *The Missionary Voice*, June, 1911.

New Haven, Conn., 1902. Summary of the Tenement House Investigation. Prof. Henry W. Farnum.

New Haven, Conn., 1911. The Foreign Invasion of a New England Town. By Emma W. Rogers. *Survey*, June 3, 1911.

New Jersey, 1904 to date. Annual Reports of the Board of Tenement House Supervision.

New Orleans, La., 1912. Report of the Housing Situation in New Orleans. By Eleanor McMain in *The New Citizen*, February, 1912.

New York City, 1903 Tenement House Reform many brief reports made by the National Housing Association to citizens' organizations or to municipal authorities for their guidance and which have appeared only in local newspapers or in typewritten form, and reports made to state and local conferences and published, if at all, only in proceedings etc. are not mentioned.

Even with these limitations it is necessary to add one more, that of time. So the list begins with the epoch marked by the appearance of the First Report of the Tenement House Department of the City of New York. There had been reports before that, but so thoroughly has the field been covered since that their interest is chiefly for the historian. This epoch may be termed the tenement house epoch for so vividly had the country been impressed by New York's great fight for the improvement of its tenement houses that it could scarcely dissociate housing evils from multiple dwellings. Consequently when the City Homes Association of Chicago issued its fine report in 1901 it entitled the volume Tenement Conditions in Chicago though the greater part of Chicago's problem, then as now, had to do with the insanitary condition of small houses. Another consequence of this concentration on New York's tenement house campaign was the imitation by many other cities of New York's tenement house law, a law, which, it is perhaps needless to say, passed quite over the heads of cities that had not developed tenement evils

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in New York City, 1834–1900. By Lawrence Veiller in *The Tenement House Problem.*

New York City, 1903. Tenement House Fires in New York. By Hugh Bonner and Lawrence Veiller in *The Tenement House Problem.*

New York City, 1902–1903. First Report of the Tenement House Department.

New York City, 1903 to date. Annual Reports of the Tenement House Department.

New York State, 1912. Housing Conditions in New York State. First Annual Report of Bureau of Industries and Immigration. ("Labor Camps and Colonics").

Philadelphia, Pa., 1904. Housing Conditions in.—Philadelphia. An investigation made by Emily W. Dinwiddie under the direction of a committee of the Octavia Hill Association.

Philadelphia, Pa., 1911. Housing Commission. Pamphlet showing need of law requiring water supply in houses.

Philadelphia, Pa., 1911. One Million People in Small Houses, By Helen L. Parrish. National Housing Association Publication No. 7, March, 1911; also *Survey*, May 6, 1911.

Philadelphia, Pa., 1911. Housing Conditions in Philadelphia. Philadelphia Housing Commission, June 25, 1911.

Philadelphia, Pa., 1912. Drainage Conditions in Philadelphia. Philadelphia Housing Commission.

Pittsburgh, 1909. The Housing Situation in Pittsburgh. By F. Elisabeth Crowell. *Survey*, February 6, 1909.

Rhode Island, 1910. Tenement House Conditions in Five Rhode Island Cities: Central Falls, Newport, Pawtucket, Providence, Woonsocket,—Rhode Island Bureau of Industrial Statistics.

Rochester, N. Y., 1911. Sanitary Survey. By Mrs. Caroline Bartlett Crane (section on housing).

Rochester, N. Y., 1911. The Fourth Ward Survey By Edwin A. Rumball in *The Common Good*, November, 1911.

St. Louis, Mo., 1908. Report of Housing Committee of Civic League.

St. Louis, Mo., 1911. New Tenants and Old Shacks. By Roger N. Baldwin. *Survey*, February 18, 1911.

Saginaw, Mich., 1911. Sanitary Survey. By Mrs. Caroline Bartlett Crane. (section on Housing).

Salem, Mass., 1912. Glimpses of Some Salem Lives. Twentieth Annual Report of the Salem Associated Charities.

San Antonio, Texas. The Housing Problem in Texas. By George Waverly Briggs, *Galveston-Dallas News*, December 3, 1911.

San Francisco, Cal., 1911. The Romeo Flat—San Francisco. By Alice S. Griffith, *Survey*, April 1, 1911.

San Francisco, Cal., 1911. First Report of the San Francisco Housing Association. November, 1911.

South Bend, Ind., 1911. Local Housing Conditions Investigated. Eighth and Ninth Annual Reports, Associated Charities and Philanthropies.

Toronto, Ont., 1911. Report of the Medical Health Officer Dealing with the Recent Investigation of Slum Conditions in Toronto, embodying recommendations for the amelioration of the same.

Washington, D. C., 1907. History and Development of the Housing Movement in the City of Washington, D. C. By George M. Kober, M.D.

Washington, D. C., 1908. Report of the Committee on Improvement of Existing Houses and Elimination of Insanitary and Alley Houses.

Washington D. C., 1909. Neglected Neighbors in the National Capital. By Charles F. Weller.

Yonkers, N. Y., 1904. Yonkers: The Awakening of a Smaller City to its Housing Problem. By Mary Marshall Butler, *Charities*, December 5, 1903.

comparable to New York's and left untouched their real evils of insanitary small houses.

It was not long, however, before investigators in other cities saw that bad housing is not confined to huge barracks, so we began to get reports on "housing" which describe the pestilential conditions in cities or in districts where the tenement house of legal definition was practically unknown. The law makers were slow to follow this change, however, and it was not until within the past two years that we got really effective legislation which deals with housing no matter what technical form that housing may assume; and even today we find cities like Cleveland and Detroit intent upon codes which will afford some measure of protection to those of their inhabitants who live in multiple dwellings, but singularly cautious about extending a helping hand to those who live in one family shacks and hovels.

From the time that the investigators began to see that the very worst of bad housing conditions could exist independent of multiple dwellings it would have been possible for a newly awakened city, had its people been blessed with imagination, to have taken any one of half a dozen reports already in print and by reading it have seen itself. What Charles F. Weller and Miss Janet E. Kemp saw in the alleys of Washington, Miss Kemp and others found later in Baltimore, Louisville, St. Louis and other cities with a large negro population; and, difficult as it may be for some to believe, what they found among the negroes and poor whites of these cities is practically duplicated in reports on the housing conditions among the poorer immigrants from Europe who crowd our more northern cities and towns.

There are, of course, some differences, but they are differences of degree rather than of kind. In a comparatively few of the smaller cities, like Yonkers and some of the New England manufacturing towns, the blight of the New York and the Boston types of tenement houses has spread until they personify the enemy; but throughout the greater part of the country the tenement house, though almost everywhere present, is still only one of the housing evils.

So with each city it is a matter of emphasis. In most, even today, the abominable privy vault is the greatest single factor to be dealt with. Chicago in spite of the fact that it has known of its thousands of vaults for ten years has not yet abolished them, though the valuable studies made by Miss Edith Abbott and Miss Breckinridge for the Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy last year show that progress has been made in some of the worst of the old districts, while new vaults are being dug in new districts. In other cities, the lack of water supply is most dwelt upon. As a result of a campaign by the housing commission, following an investigation and report last year, Philadelphia secured the enactment of a "spigot" law which will somewhat better conditions in its slum districts. In other cities lack of drainage is the greatest evil; but in all the cities investigated all of these evils and others were present, and until all have been removed none of the cities will have solved its housing problem.

Perhaps it would be well to enumerate a little more fully some of these housing evils common to all the cities investigated so that the residents of cities and towns which have not yet awakened to the fact that they have a housing problem may at least know what to look for. First in order of discovery though, fortunately, not yet first in order of importance for most of our smaller cities, is the tenement house or barracks which with strict regulation may be made to furnish a sanitary shelter, but can never be made to deserve the name of home. Its peculiar dangers are dark and unventilatable rooms which breed tuberculosis, filthy halls, yards and other conveniences used in common and its many sided menace to morality due to the practical impossibility of providing for family privacy and the wholesome rearing of children.

The worst types of small houses, such as those found in the alleys and courts of even the smallest cities, almost equal the tenement in these respects. Small houses crowded together, especially when they are three or more rooms deep, furnish a surprisingly large number of dark and unventilated rooms, as some of our anti-tuberculosis societies are beginning to discover. When in addition the inhabitants of several houses must depend upon one hydrant or, as is frequently the case, one well or spring, for their water supply and upon one privy, both placed in a common yard, small houses duplicate the evils long thought peculiar to the tenement house, and deserve the title "horizontal tenements" given them by Lawrence Veiller.

Though the alley and court houses are far more wide spread than the comfortable citizens of many of our "home" cities dream, bad housing extends beyond them. It includes lot overcrowding with its attendant shutting out of light and air from living and sleeping rooms, dark halls, unsanitary plumbing as well as no plumbing at all, cellar living rooms and damp or water filled cellars and basements below living rooms, piles of garbage and other refuse in cellars and yards which, with the old manure piles and the privy vaults, serve as the great breeding and feeding places for the swarms of flies which we, as a nation, are now so industriously swatting; and, most difficult of all to overcome, room overcrowding.

Yet, even with such a detailed description as this and with all the existing printed reports from other cities to draw upon, it is probable that we shall have many more reports during the next few years. For the worst of the housing evils are not visible to him who passes in an automobile, or even to him who goes along the sidewalk. The worst house may present a fair appearance from the street, it may even have its bit of lawn kept trim and neat while in the rear are piles of decaying garbage, in the cellar a pool of foetid water, and on the floors above rooms divided into cubby holes without light or air to provide accomodation for ten families in place of one. Such things, to one who has not seen them with his own eyes, are hard to believe, especially when he is asked to believe them of his own town. So it will be necessary to send out new investigators to see and report that our town is much the same as others, and back up the statement with facts and photographs labelled with street and number.

John Ihlder.[1]

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San Francisco Water Supply.—The San Francisco *Municipal Record* of July 18, 1912, contains a summary of the report by John R. Freeman, an engineer representing the city, to the board of army engineers appointed to investigate and report on the proposed Hetchy Hetchy Valley water supply for San Francisco. Mr. Freeman's report, submitted on July 15, makes a volume of 200 pages. As a result of his investigations he reaches the conclusion that the city's grant under the Garfield permit is not sufficiently broad to preserve the public interest. He proposes a project to furnish 400,000,000 gallons of water daily, with 70,000 horse power (and ultimately 150,000) at approximately the same cost as the former plans. This includes a dam 300 feet high, to flood the floor of the valley to a depth of 270 feet; a wagon road to the valley, a scenic road in the valley on both sides of the lake, and aqueducts and tunnels to San Francisco. The report also deals with sanitary control, the use of the water for irrigation and replies to objections on ground of interference with scenic features of the valley.

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Vocational Education in Europe.—A report to the Commercial Club of Chicago on Vocational Education in Europe, by Edwin G. Cooley, formerly superintendent of schools in Chicago, has been published under date of March 27, 1912. This deals mostly with Germany, including chapters on continuation schools, secondary technical schools, textile and other trade schools, commercial schools and agricultural schools. Some special institutions in Austria and Switzerland have also been examined and discussed.

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[1] Field secretary, National Housing Association.

This report, with that on Vocational Education by the City Club Committee[1] forms a valuable handbook of information on a subject now receiving much deserved attention from educational and municipal authorities and also from business organizations and others.

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Ohio Constitutional Amendment.—The forty-two proposed amendments to the constitution of Ohio, agreed to by the Constitutional Convention in that state, and voted on at a special election on September 3, were printed in pamphlet form, with explanatory statements in reference to each amendment, for distribution to the voters. The pamphlet also contained a facsimile of the official ballot used at the election.

Copies of this pamphlet were distributed by the Municipal Association of Cleveland, with two leaflets, one discussing the municipal home rule provisions, and the other urging voters to vote in favor of the home rule and merit system amendments.

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Missouri Tax Amendments.—The Municipal Finance and Taxation committee of the St. Louis Civic League has issued a brief report of eight pages on the proposed taxation ammendments to the constitution of Missouri, which are to be submitted to popular vote at the coming election in November. This report unqualifiedly endorses the amendment providing for a permanent Tax Commission. It considers the proposed "single tax" on land and franchise values preferable as a fiscal measure to the existing system; but that some defects of the present system may be removed by less revolutionary changes. Further the single tax should be judged by its social and economic results quite as much as by its purely fiscal qualities.

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Pittsburgh Flood Commission.—In March, 1912, the Pittsburgh flood commission published an extensive report of 900 pages of text and tabulated matter, including numerous maps and diagrams This contains the results of the surveys, investigations and studies made by the commission for the purpose of determining the causes of, damage by and methods of relief from floods in the Allegheny, Monongahela and Ohio Rivers at Pittsburgh, Pa., together with the benefit to navigation, sanitation, water supply and water power to be obtained by river regulation.

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[1] See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. 1, p. 457.

CURRENT MUNICIPAL LEGISLATION

EDITED BY JOHN A. LAPP

Legislative Reference Department of the Indiana State Library

The Trend of Milk Legislation.—An evidence of the growing intelligence of the public on the subject of city milk is seen in the new series of municipal ordinances dealing with the question.

The old series required that the milk be clean and unadulterated, that cans be washed, that they be kept covered in the grocery store when not in use, that no dairy should be located within the city limits, etc. They assumed that milk would be handled in cans, that all dairies were necessarily filthy, and that the words "clean and unadulterated" covered the requirements for the milk itself.

Modern ordinances deal first with the dairy. Regulations of the city board of health of New York City, approved April 13, 1910, afford a good illustration. The cows must be kept clean, be groomed daily, the udders and teats washed before milking, fed only good food, and they must be healthy, the latter to be proven by a veterinary surgeon's test at least once a year.

The stable must be located in a clean spot, at least 100 feet from other stables or cess-pools, there must be adequate ventilation with good windows and ample room for the herd, cement or brick floors, ceiling dust proof and to be kept clean, walls and ledges thoroughly swept, cow-beds clean and sanitary, stables to be white-washed at least twice a year, all manure to be immediately removed from vicinity of stable, lime scattered on floors —and the stable to be used exclusively for milch cows.

A milk house also is required, this likewise to be located at least 100 feet from any cess-pool, it must be kept clean and well ventilated, with running water, and ice for cooling the milk and equipment for the thorough washing and sterilization of all utensils used in handling the milk.

There are further specific regulations concerning cleanliness and good health of milkers and their method of milking; concerning the milk, its quality, methods of immediate cooling, handling and shipping.

These regulations are by no means drastic. A number of cities have required that all milch cows must be tuberculin tested and that all utensils be thoroughly sterilized—neither of which are required in New York.

Concerning means of distribution the newer ordinances are eliminating the use of cans for all retail deliveries, providing that all milk must be delivered in sealed bottles or jars; that these bottles shall have been thoroughly sterilized before they were filled and that bottles shall not be refilled or milk exchanged from bottle to bottle except at the dairy or milk-plant. There are also careful specifications concerning "refrigerators, compartments, or other places" where milk or cream is "kept, stored or handled." The delivery wagon must be clean, the driver must be free from any contagious disease, and the milk must be kept at a temperature not exceeding 50° while in process of delivery.

In the newer ordinances, moreover, "cleanliness" and "good quality" are defined. Take as an illustration the recent ordinance of the city of Tacoma, Washington (adopted January 3, 1912): "It shall be unlawful for any person to sell, exchange, or deliver, offer or expose for sale, or have in his possession with intent to sell or deliver any milk containing less than 8.75 per cent of milk solids, exclusive of fat, or less than 3.25 per cent of fat;" or any "unwholesome milk," in the definition of which is included, milk "when it contains any pathogenic bacteria or germs, pus cells, or blood cells; or when it contains more than 200,000 bacteria or germs of all kinds to the cubic centimeter;" or "when any part of it has been exposed to any contagious or infectious disease."

Beyond such requirements for the general milk supply several cities have gone further in an attempt to make possible a higher grade of milk for their citizens. Ordinances of April 7, 1911 in Berkeley, California, and of March 27, 1911 in Syracuse, New York, provide for "inspected milk," milk meeting special requirements to be certified by the city board of health. Such milk shall not contain more than 100,000 bacteria per cubic centimeter at the time of delivery.

City boards of health do not have the power to certify the so-called "certified milk" (milk with less than 10,000 bacteria), this power being invested by copyright in local medical milk commissions, but in a number of cities the boards are doing much to promote the use of this highest grade of milk, especially for infant feeding, either by published recommendations or by helping to provide for its use at hospitals, infant welfare stations, babies' dispensaries and the like.

The trend of all this legislation is toward the repression of dairying as a side business and the encouragement of the business as a specialty—at the same time educating the public to demand milk which will cost more money, but in the long run will be far cheaper.

F. D. Loomis.[1]

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Chicago's New Milk Ordinance.—During the last five years the Chicago health department has been urging that the milk supply should be as safe as the meat supply An ordinance providing that milk not produced by cows shown by the tuberculin test to be free from tuberculosis must be pasteurized, was passed. During the last session of the state legislature this ordinance was rendered inoperative by the enactment of a state law declaring it unlawful for cities to require a tuberculin test of cattle employed in the production of milk. The city law department has since given an opinion holding the entire city ordinance, including that part referring to pasteurization, to be invalidated by the state law. While the ordinance was in effect about 70 per cent of the city's milk supply was pasteurized and, therefore, was comparatively safe.

After its invalidation the health department could not require that milk should be pasteurized or make adequate provisions for the inspection of the supply and in consequence the entire city was placed at the mercy of the dairy men who furnished uncleaned milk.

A new ordinance was drafted by Dr. George B. Young, commissioner of health, and recommended for passage to the city council by the committee on health, of which Dr. Willis O. Nance is chairman. After considerable agitation and opposition it became a law on August 14. It provides that all raw milk sold in Chicago shall be of a grade defined as "inspected" and shall meet the following requirements:

(a) Farms on which produced must score 65 per cent "good" and after January 1, 1915, the score must be 70 per cent "good."

(b) Cows must be clean and healthy, free from tuberculosis and other infectious diseases.

(c) Milkers must be clean and healthy.

(d) All steps in the production of the milk must be carried out under cleanly and healthful conditions.

(e) Milk must be promptly cooled and kept at temperature of 60° F., or below, until delivered to the consumer.

(f) Shall only be sold in tightly capped bottles and shall bear date of production.

(g) Shall be free from dirt and disease-producing bacteria or other matter detrimental to health; the high limit of bacterial content to be 100,000 per cubic centimeter from October 1 to May 1, and 150,000 from May 2 to September 30.

(h) The dairy farmer must agree and guarantee that he will notify the department of health at once if any contagious diseases occur on his farm.

Dairy farms complying with these requirements are given a permit by the department of health. This allows their milk to come into the city as "inspected" milk.

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[1] Indianapolis Indiana.

This ordinance further provides that milk which cannot meet the requirements for "inspected" milk, but which is produced on farms scoring over 55 per cent "good," and is free from gross dirt, and contains less than 1,000,000 bacteria per cubic centimeter, and is kept at a temperature of 60° F., or below, may be sold in Chicago if pasteurized according to the regulations prescribed in the ordinance.

Frederick Rex.

*

Petty Loan Brokers.—A law passed by the recent session of the legislature of Maryland requires every person, firm, corporation or association engaged in making petty loans to secure an annual license, the charge for which is $10. The license must state fully the name or names of the person or corporations and of every member of the firm or association authorized to do a petty loan business and to give the location of the office or place of business. It is also provided that no person, firm, corporation or association shall transact or solicit business under any other name or at any other place of business than that named in the license and only one place of business shall be maintained under the same license.

Provision is made that no petty loan broker shall receive any sum in the way of bonus or commission or as fees for the examination of property, etc., in addition to legal interest for sums exceeding $500. For loans less than $500, the following charges are permitted in addition to legal interest, these charges to cover the examination of property, registration of papers, affidavits, etc.: On a loan not exceeding $10, a total charge of not more than $3; from $10 to $30, not more than $5; from $30 to $50, not more than $6; from $50 to $100, not more than $8; from $100 to $500, not more than $8 plus 5 per cent of the excess above $100. If the loans are made payable within less than four months, the charges shall be a proportionate part of the above, that is, if the loan is for one month, the charge shall be one-fourth of the charge mentioned above.

Interest and charges may be deducted when the loan is made but it is unlawful to divide or split up any loan either directly or indirectly for the purpose of exacting or receiving any charge in addition to those provided, nor can any petty loan broker hold more than one loan on which such charges are made from the same borrower at the same time. It is also unlawful to make any charge for the renewal or extension of any loan in addition to the lawful interest. There may be a renewal fee not exceeding 3 per cent of the balance of loan extended or the amount of loan renewed when the period of renewal or extension is four months or more and a proportionate part when period is less than four months.

Every chattel mortgage or bill of sale taken by a petty loan broker shall state fully the amount of such loan, the rate of interest, the period or periods at or within which the same is to be paid, the amount of money actually received by the borrower and the cost to the borrower. The penalty for the violation of any provision of the law is a fine not exceeding $100 for the first offense and for each subsequent offense, a fine of not more than $100 and imprisonment for not more than thirty days; one-half of the fine in each case to go to the informer and every loan in connection with which there is a violation is made null and void and the borrower is entitled to recover from the lender all sums returned or paid on account of such loan.[1]

Horace E. Flack.

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Municipal Lodging Houses.—Reports collected from the larger cities of the United States show that few cities have legislated definitely and positively for municipal lodging houses. In most all cases the existing legislation is in the nature of amendments to ordinances and laws which are generally those ordinances relating to the health department, the recreation commission, or the department of charities and corrections. In some cases the municipal lodging house is a division of the department of public safety.

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[1] In the January issue we will publish an article on "Philadelphia's Solution of the Loan Problem" from the pen of Franklin Spencer Edmonds, Esq.

Los Angeles has just recently made provision for the establishment of a lodging house and labor bureau, the budget committee of the city council appropriating $10,000 for the purpose. The house will have free beds, baths and other features for the unfortunate. The Back to the Land Association has a connection with the work, and through the association employment will be provided for the unemployed of the city.

In the eastern cities the overseers of the poor conduct such lodges as are in operation, and the rules and regulations made by the overseers govern the houses.

The Erie County lodging house in Buffalo was opened by the county supervisors and is under the supervision of a committee composed of members of the supervisors, which committee appoints a superintendent under civil service rules. The regulations for the house are made by this committee, and the expense is met by appropriation of the supervisors.

The houses of Chicago are under the direction of the bureau of sanitation. No special ordinance created the lodging houses, they being established as a substitute for the old plan of allowing—and compelling—lodgers to sleep in the police stations. Provision for the lodging houses are made yearly in the budget.

The law on the subject is very simple in Cincinnati, in fact is merely an addition of a few words to an old statute under the general enumeration of municipal powers. The administration of the department of the municipal lodging house rests in the superintendent.

The board of public welfare, a recent creation in Kansas City, has an agreement with the Helping Hand Institute, according to the terms of which the former body pays the institute for each homeless dependent man, woman, or child at the rate of ten cents per meal and fifteen cents per lodging. By this coöperation the expense of the city in caring for those requiring temporary shelter is probably one-third of what it would be, if the entire cost were borne by the city. The city profits by the years of experience of the institute in dealing with the problem, and on the other hand the institute has been able to provide improved facilities.

Minneapolis administers its lodging house through the board of charities and corrections which is a branch of the city government, having jurisdiction over all city hospitals, charities, and the workhouse.

New York has a very similar arrangement, the administrative officer being a superintendent appointed by the commission of charities.

Temporary relief was provided in St. Louis during the past winter by an emergency ordinance appropriating $5000 for immediate use. The bill provided for a board composed of the mayor, the president of the council, and the speaker of the house of delegates. This commission elected a superintendent of the lodging house, who conducted the institution under the supervision of the commission. Some permanent arrangement for a lodging house will be launched during the coming season.[1]

Jesse Cunningham.[2]

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Ohio State Building Code.—The building code commission of Ohio is composed of the secretary of the state board of health, the state fire marshal, and the chief inspector of workshops and factories. The law creating this commission directed these officials "to cause to be prepared a code of regulations with respect to the construction, safety, sanitary conditions and maintenance of public andother buildings. . . .[1]

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[1] See Municipal Reference Number of the St. Louis Public Library Bulletin.

[2] Municipal reference librarian, St. Louis.

A portion of the code was enacted, by the last general assembly, into law.[2] It included part 2, special requirements, part 3, standard devices, and part 4, sanitation. Seven groups of buildings are outlined for consideration: (1) Theatres and assembly halls, (2) churches, (3) school buildings, (4) asylums, hospitals, and homes, (5) hotels, lodging houses, apartments and tenement houses, (6) club and lodge buildings, and (7) workshops, factories and mercantile establishments. The details for only two of these groups have been worked out, these being (1) Theatres and assembly halls, and (3) school buildings.

A theatre is defined as a building or part of a building in which persons congregate to witness spectacular, vaudeville, burlesque, dramatic or operatic performances. Buildings in which scenery is used, or in which motion pictures are shown, are classed as theatres.[3]

Assembly halls include buildings or parts of buildings used for lodges, dances, lectures, concerts and entertainments using no scenery.

School buildings include "all public, parochial and private schools, colleges, academies, seminaries, libraries, museums and art galleries."[4] All buildings containing one or more rooms used for the assemblying of persons for acquiring knowledge are classed as school buildings.

Two grades "A" and "B" are made from the above buildings, with special requirements for each. "A" includes all rooms or buildings appropriated to the use of primary, grammar or high schools—all pupils being eighteen years or less. "B" includes the rooms or buildings appropriated to the use of schools, colleges, academies, seminaries, libraries, museums and art galleries.

Among the numerous subjects (forty-two sections in all) considered in special requirements for theatres and assembly halls are: courts, subdivisions, and fire stops, proscenium walls, workshops, storage and property rooms, dressing rooms, heater room, smoking room, seats, seat benches, aisles and foyers, false openings, mirrors, automatic ventilation, proscenium curtain, means of ingress and egress, stairways, gradients and inclines, passageways, elevators, exit doors, scuttles, wall hand rails, stage vestibule, floor and roof loads, heating and ventilation, sanitation, electrical work, oil lamps, gas lighting, fire extinguishers, fire-proof paint, hooks and axes, finishing hardware, summer theatres and air dromes, and roof gardens.

For school buildings, twenty-nine sections are considered. Among the special requirements are many of the points noted above, but these additional ones are mentioned: Dimensions of school and class rooms, rest room, assembly room, seats, desks, aisles, optics, fire alarm, blowers in workshops, and guarding machinery and pits.

Part 3 of the code is devoted to standard devices. The sections are so arranged that the detailed descriptions of, or specifications for the numerous devices, correspond to the sections in part 2. The standards considered are: Fire walls, fire stops, fire doors, shaft and belt openings, rolling steel doors and shutters, fireproof windows, fire ladders and fire escapes, fireproof heater room, enclosed fireproof stairways, ventilating stoves, stand pipes and hose, and fire extinguishers.

Sanitation is part 4 of the code, and deals with the following subjects: Sizes of pipes, materials, joints and connections, traps and cleanouts, house sewerage and drains, yards, sub-soil and other drains, roof conductors and leaders, soil waste and vent pipes, refrigerator, safe and special wastes, fixtures, toilet rooms, inspection and tests, catch basins, sump and ejectors, cesspools, septic tanks, vaults, pumps and hydrants.

The enforcement of the provisions of the code devolves jointly upon three groups of officials—the state fire marshal and the fire chiefs in the municipalities, the chief inspector of workshops and factories and the building departments in the cities, and the state board of health and the local boards in the cities.

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[1] Act of May 13, 1910, 101 O.L., 202.

[2] Act of June 14, 1911, 102 O.L., 586-728.

[3] 102 O.L., 590.

[4] 102 O.L., 619-20.

The penalties for violating the code fall upon the holders of property and the builders. For any violation, the offense is deemed a misdemeanor and is punishable by a $1000 fine.

The building code comission is now working out the details of other sections of the various titles, and will report at the next session of the general assembly in January, 1913.[1]

Charles Wells Reeder.[2]

⁂

Housing Code, Columbus, Ohio.—The housing code of Columbus was approved by the mayor on March 7, 1911.[3] It contains all the provisions which must be observed when a person proposes to build a new tenement house or dwelling house, all the provisions which must be observed when an existing tenement house or dwelling house is altered, all the provisions which must be observed with regard to the maintenance of a tenement house or dwelling house, and all provisions which an owner must observe with regard to the improvements required in a tenement house or dwelling house erected prior to the passage of this code.

As the major portion of the code deals with tenement houses, the special regulations concerning them will be considered.

No tenement house shall occupy, in the case of a corner lot, more than 75 per cent of the area; in the case of interior lots, not more than 50 per cent. The height of the house cannot exceed the width of the street, unless the building is set back a distance equal to the excess height. Behind the house there must be a yard 18 feet deep. If another house is to erected upon the same lot, the walls must be 24 feet apart. One side of the building must front on a street. In the apartments, one room must have at least 150 square feet of floor area, and all other rooms must have at least 100 square feet area, except the bath and kitchen. Each room in the house must have a window, which opens directly upon the street, yard or court. The window must have at least an area of 12 square feet and the top must be at least 7 feet from the floor. The total window area of each room must be at least one-eighth of the floor area. Some exceptions are made to these provisions for bathrooms. A chimney must be erected so that coal can be used, and a grate must be built for every apartment. Running water must be piped for the sink and the bathroom. Add to these requirements numerous provisions for fire protection and sanitation, and it is seen that the code sets a high standard for construction.

Permits for building are issued by the building department after the plans and specifications have been approved and a drawing of the lot submitted, showing the location, character and size of all buildings on it. The department requires the full name, residence by street and number of the owner of the building and of all persons interested financially in it. No building can be occupied until the department issues a certificate that it conforms to all the requirements in the ordinance.

Violations of the code are punishable by a fine of $5.00 to $200.00 for the first offense, and $25 to $500 for the second and subsequent offenses. The enforcement of the provisions devolves upon the health department and upon the building department.

Many of these same provisions are applicable to dwelling houses, but as a rule the restrictions are not so rigid.

Charles Wells Reeder.

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[1] 102 O.L., 440.

[2] Ohio State University Library.

[3] Ordinance no. 25609, city of Columbus.

Lighting of Moving Picture Theatres.—On July 22 the Chicago city council passed the ordinance introduced by Alderman Thomson requiring that every portion of a moving picture theatre shall be lighted during exhibitions. The ordinance provides that "every portion of a moving picture theatre, including exits, courts and corridors, devoted to the use or accommodation of the public shall be so lighted by electric light during all exhibitions and until the entire audience has left the premises that a person with normal eyesight shall be able to read Snellen standard test type 40 at a distance of 20 feet and type 30 at a distance of 10 feet; normal eyesight meaning ability to read type 20 at a distance of 20 feet in daylight. Cards showing types 20, 30 and 40 should be displayed in the corridor of every such theatre together with a copy of this ordinance." Proprietors of moving picture theatres are liable to a fine of not less than $25 nor more than $200 for each offense for failure to comply with the ordinance.

The proposed New York City moving picture ordinance prepared by a committee of citizens appointed by Mayor Gaynor and which was reported favorably by the committee on laws and legislation to the board of aldermen contains a section on illumination during performances identical to the Chicago ordinance. San Francisco, however, in an ordinance passed April 25 provides that moving picture theatres shall "during the hours that the same be open to the public be kept lighted and illuminated in an amount of light equal to the light diffused or radiated from six 32 candle power incandescent lights at a voltage of 110, with a resistance of four 440 ohms per lamp, in a room containing 1250 square feet of floor surface."

The above ordinances are pioneers in the movement for making moving picture theatres safer morally to the large number of human beings patronizing them.

Frederick Rex.[1]

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[1] Chicago, Illinois.

Recent Maine Election Laws.—Two Maine laws enacted in 1911 have been tried out this year.

The first of these is a very stringent corrupt practices act[1] said to have been modeled on that of Connecticut. This law is applicable to all elections and caucuses in the state and the first opportunity to test its validity and effectiveness was presented by those municipal elections held in the latter part of the year. In Portland where the normal Republican majority has recently been disturbed by an active attempt to repeal the prohibitory law, a Democratic city council which has been in power for a year was reëlected. Thereupon an investigation was instituted by a committee of prominent citizens with the result that they joined in a petition to a justice of the supreme judicial court in the manner provided by this law, complaining that the law had been violated by an unlawful use of money in procuring the election of the mayor and council. The object of the petition was to obtain an investigation of the facts before two justices of the court who by their findings may avoid the election. In case they hold that the successful candidate was guilty he is made ineligible for holding public office for a term of four years. The investigation presents an effective method of making public information which may later be utilized as a basis for criminal proceedings.

In this instance the cause was assigned for hearing on January 20 and a large number of witnesses produced in court. The proceedings were then interrupted by a petition on the part of the respondents for a writ of prohibition directed against the court on the assumption that it was an inferior tribunal and as such subject to be restrained by the supreme judicial court if it exceeded its jurisdiction. The specific allegations related first to the constitutionality of the trial court, it being claimed that a provision in the Maine constitution forbidding justices of the supreme judicial court from holding any other office under the state except that of justice of the peace makes them ineligible to sit in the court created by this act. This of course raises the question whether they do constitute a new court or whether they merely sit as justices of the supreme judicial court. The other allegations attacked the form of the petition presented under the corrupt practices act and raised the question whether the citizen who seeks to set in motion the machinery of the law is bound by all the technicalities of common law pleading, in fact whether or not the law is workable under reasonable circumstances. The petition for writ of prohibition was dismissed by the court on the ground that it was not a proper proceeding to raise the constitutional questions. Exceptions to this ruling were also overruled, and the respondents thereupon petitioned the supreme judicial court for a hearing on the sufficiency of their exceptions. Counsel for petitioners consented that the case be presented to the law court in this way and propounded certain questions relating to the constitutionality of the law in order that this question might be determined before proceeding further, and the case was argued before the law court early in July and is now under consideration.

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[1] Public laws 1911, chapter 122.

The second of the two laws above referred to is the direct primary law. This is not the act which appears in the public laws of 1911, chapter 199, but is another and more comprehensive law which was originally proposed to the legislature by the advocates of the direct primary and for which the act, chapter 199 of the public laws was substituted as a party measure. Instead of resorting to the referendum to defeat the inadequate, and as some believed obnoxious legislation, the friends of the direct primary proceeded by the initiative and presented their law to the people at the special election held in September, 1911. It was there accepted by an overwhelming majority and it is understood that this has the effect of repealing chapter 199 and superseding it by the thorough and careful legislation thus adopted, which has the distinction of being the first enactment in this state proceeding directly from the people.

The new law was tried in the nomination of a few representatives for the legislature to fill vacancies, this being made necessary by reason of the special session of the legislature to be held in the spring; in June the regular primary election was held, nominating United States senator, representatives to congress, governor, state auditor, state senators and representatives to the legislature, and all county officers. The law while providing the preferential primary for United States senator does not provide for a presidential primary, and it does not apply to the city or town elections. The new law is generally recognized as affording a more satisfactory method of nominating than the convention system, formerly in operation, which had become discredited particularly in the selection of county officials.

Under the convention system the friends of the sheriff or other most powerful candidate on the ticket controlled the selection of other officials wholly unrelated to his office. As this is seen to be impossible under the new law, the voters are more willing to acquiesce in the result of the nominations, and the vote at the fall election is expected to be unusually large. In some ways the law has not proved satisfactory. It gives a much greater influence to the cities, where more interest is taken in elections, than in the country towns. In some instances, by substituting a plurality nomination for that of a majority it obviously defeated the will of the people as where two or more candidates representing one side of a public question divided the majority vote, thus permitting the election of the minority candidate. This was illustrated in the vote of the preferential primary for the United States senator on the Republican side where the conservative candidate was nominated over two other candidates each openly advocating progressive principles, whereas the progressives had just previously come into complete control of the party in all parts of the state and elected their delegates to the national convention.

CLARENCE W. PEABODY.

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The St. Paul Charter.[1]—All the functions of the city, under the new charter excepting those belonging to the courts which remain as formerly constituted, are vested in a mayor and a council of six members and the city comptroller, elected every second year. The mayor presides over the council and has the veto power. He also assigns the members of the council to their respective departments at the beginning of their terms and may change this assignment at the end of the first six months. He may also prefer charges against a member of the council as such or as the head of a department for "dishonesty, unfaithfulness, or incompetency." In that case it becomes the duty of the council to publicly try the accused and remove him if the charges are found true. The mayor is barred from presiding at the hearing.

The amendment abolishes the existing boards having charge of the schools, the library, police, fire protection, public works, auditorium, workhouse, parks, and it also discontinues the conference committee. The six councilmen are styled commissioners of finance, public works, public safety, education (including schools and libraries), parks and playgrounds, and public utilities. The city comptroller is the accountant, but is not a member of the city council. He is also the civil service commissioner. It is his duty to prepare the annual budget and submit it to the council for consideration.

Nominations for the elective positions are made on petitions signed by fifty voters. The two candidates for mayor, the two for comptroller and the twelve for councilmen who receive the largest votes in the primary become the candidates at the regular city election.

Ordinances petitioned for by 10 per cent of the voters must be considered in the council and passed within 90 days, otherwise submission at the next regular election is mandatory. If 25 per cent of the voters petition for the passage of an ordinance and the council fails to pass it within four months, submission at a special election becomes mandatory provided no regular election occurs within one year.

All except emergency ordinances are subject to a referendum within 30 days of their passage on a petition of 8 per cent of the voters. Even the emergency ordinances are subject to repeal on petition of 8 per cent within 90 days of their publication, excepting only the annual budget in so far as the items are not new. The council may on its own motion refer measures to a vote of the people. Single sections of an ordinance are also subject to repeal by referendum. Ordinances adopted on initiative petition or by a referendum vote are not subject to repeal by the council within one year.

The council by a five-sevenths vote may remove any elective or appointive officer of the city. On petition of 25 per cent of the voters any elective officer, excepting judges and constables, may be subject to a recall election, but not for the first or last six months of his two-year term.

The commissioner of finance has in fact the functions of a city treasurer, but he is also a member of the city council. The comptroller is not a member of the council, but is expressly required to secure the council's approval of the forms and systems of accounts he proposes to use. It would seem that the treasurer has therefore a position of greater authority and influence than the comptroller.

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[1] See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. i, p. 476.

This departure from the commission type in the organization of the finance department is an evident attempt to correct a supposed defect in the original plan. It looks as if the cure might be worse then the disease. The comptroller is also placed in the very awkward position of having the functions of the civil service commissioner thrust upon him. The authority of the commissioner of public utilities is stated thus in section 444:

> Subject to the council said commissioner shall have full control of the regulation within said city of all telephone, telegraph, lighting, heating, power, street railway, and other municipal transportation, and all other public utilities services whatsoever, which are subject to the control of said city government. He shall exercise such powers in accordance with ordinances passed by the council upon his recommendation. All licenses, permits, and all other privileges granted by said city to public utility owners or operators, their lessees or representatives, shall be first approved by said commissioner.

This provision seems to make the commissioner superior to the council of which he is one of seven members and over which the mayor presides and has the suspensory veto power. At the same time he is required to exercise his powers in accordance with ordinances of the city council passed on his recommendation. The question as to which is the real superior and which the subordinate is left somewhat clouded. The St. Paul charter does not give the mayor charge of any definite department, nor does it group all the administrative divisions of the city under the seven departments over which the comptroller and the six councilmen preside, as is the case under the typical commission plan. The actual test of practice alone can finally determine its true worth as an intrument of government. Meanwhile the voters' hopes are high.

William A. Schaper.[1]

Home Rule—Virginia.—Practically the only general legislation directly affecting the government of municipalities, enacted during the recent session of the legislature was the passage for the second time of a joint resolution proposing an amendment to the state constitution by which the legislature was authorized in granting municipal charters to vary from the existing constitutional form of charter, but it was required in all cases to provide for the continued election by popular vote of a number of fee office-holders, such as city treasurer, city commissioner of the revenue, city sergeant or jailer, commonwealth's attorney, and clerks of the circuit and corporation courts.

This action of the legislature was taken in response to a demand for an amendment to the constitution which would give the cities home rule and the commission form of charter.

The proposed amendment cannot become effective unless ratified next November by popular vote, and no charters could be granted under it until the 1914 session of the legislature.

Realizing this fact, a number of cities wishing to obtain a more workable form of city government secured special acts authorizing them to reduce the number of their city wards and the size of the bicameral council. This has been effected in Richmond, and also in the city of Norfolk.

Ever since the substance of the joint resolution proposing an amendment to the state constitution authorizing the legislature to vary from the present constitutional form of city charter, was made public, the advocates of commission government have felt that the proviso that the numerous officers named should always continue to be elected by popular vote would prevent any city obtaining a charter under which the commission, so-styled, would actually govern. This view was and is held by the executive committee of the Commission Government League of Norfolk, which has consistently opposed the passage of the joint resolution, and which now opposes its ratification. It has urged a substitute and has published it with arguments in a pamphlet recently issued.

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[1] Professor of political science, University of Minnesota.

C. P. Shaw.

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Public Utilities.—Two laws have been enacted or have gone into effect since the review of public utility legislation in the April number of the National Municipal Review was written (vol. i, p. 280) California's law passed in December, 1911, went into effect in March (see page 469, National Municipal Review) and Rhode Island enacted a law which was approved in April, 1912.

These laws follow in general the lines laid down by the enactments in other states, placing public utilities under a commission and requiring adequate and safe service at a just and reasonable price. In Rhode Island, the new commission is the public service commission and in California, the railroad commission.

In California the law applies to street railways, gas and electric companies, furnishing heat, light and power, telegraph and telephone companies, water companies for all purposes including irrigation, docks, wharves and warehouses besides all of the common carriers usually found under the railroad commission acts. It does not apply expressly to municipally owned utilities.

Rhode Island's law applies to street railroads, telegraph and telephone companies, and companies furnishing gas, electricity, water, light, heat or power but it does not apply to municipal waterworks.

The usual powers are granted to both commissions for the investigation on complaint of rates and service, testing of measuring devices, etc., and for fixing rates and service. Two striking differences are noted in the method of enforcement and appeal to the courts. Under the Rhode Island law an appeal to the court acts as a stay in putting a new rate into operation unless the judge expressly decides otherwise. Under the California law the order goes into effect at once and an injunction is granted only by the judge after notice and hearings.

The Rhode Island law adopted the Wisconsin provisions against delays through new evidence being presented to the court which was not presented to the commission. If new evidence is presented the case is stayed until the commission has had a chance to review it. California adopted the provision in a modified form. No appeal can be taken until after a request has been made for a rehearing and been refused. In the court the commission's findings of facts shall stand. A suspending bond must be filed by the public utility to cover any damages by the delay and may require the moneys derived from excess rates to be placed in a trust company to be refunded if the rate stands.

The Rhode Island law gives very little authority to cities and towns. The California law has a new provision to safeguard its policy of home rule for cities. The provision reads:

> This act shall not effect such powers of control over any public utility vested in any city and county or incorporated city or town as at an election to be held pursuant to laws hereafter passed by the legislature a majority of the qualified electors voting therein of such city and county or incorporated city or town shall vote to retain and until such election such power shall continue unimpaired in such city and county or incorporated city or town; but if the vote so taken shall not favor continuation of such powers they shall hereafter vest in the commission.

Such municipality may afterwards vote to rescind its action.

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Louisiana Legislation of 1912.—Considerable attention was given to municipal affairs during the recent session of the legislature. This was natural in view of the fact that the administration was a reform administration. The wholesale prevalence of graft and corruption in state and local politics having, within the past two years, resulted in the formation of the Good Government League. The result of the election last fall was that the league candidate for governor, Luther E. Hall, was elected, and the organization also secured a large representation in the legislature. The municipal legislation in question reflects, therefore, the policies of the reformers. While it cannot be claimed that the advocates of clean government were able to carry out their full program, such substantial progress has been made as to entitle Louisiana to be ranked among the so-called progressive states.

By the passage of the Powell bill, Louisiana has definitely adopted the commission form of city government. The new act applies to all cities, with the exception of New Orleans. By it the Louisiana cities are divided into two classes. Cities of the first class are those having a population of 25,000 and over; all towns of 2500, or over, and cities between 5000 and 25000 inhabitants make up the second class. It is provided that in cities of the first class the governing body shall consist of a mayor and four councilmen; in cities of the second class, of a mayor and two councilmen. All are to be elected for four-year terms. In cities of the first class, the mayor is to be commissioner of the department of public affairs and public education; in cities of the second class, he is to be commissioner of the department of public health and safety. At the time of announcing their candidature for the offices of mayor or commissioner, candidates are required to designate the department or departments for which they wish to run.

The annual salaries provided for mayors and commissioners depends upon the population of the city. In the case of mayors, they range from $5000 to $7500 in cities of the first class, and from $1000 to $3500 in cities of the second class; the salaries of commissioners, from $3000 to $5000 in cities of the first class, and from $250 to $2400 in cities of the second class.

The holder of any elective office may be recalled at any time after the expiration of the first year of his incumbency, upon request of 33⅓ per cent of the electors qualified to vote for a successor. The popular initiative of ordinances is granted on petition of 33 per cent of the vote cast for all candidates for mayor at the last preceding general election.

The main part of the referendum clause is as follows:

> No ordinance passed by the council, except when otherwise required by the general laws of the state or by the provisions of this act, except an ordinance for the immediate preservation of the public peace, health, or safety, which contains a statement of its urgency, and is passed by a two-thirds vote of the council, shall go into effect before ten days from the time of its final passage, and if during the said ten days a petition signed by electors of the city equal in number to at least 25 per centum of the entire vote cast for all candidates for mayor at the last preceding primary municipal election at which a mayor was elected, protesting against the passage of such ordinance, be presented to the council, the same shall thereupon be suspended from going into operation, and it shall be the duty of the council to reconsider such ordinance and if the same is not entirely repealed, the council shall submit the ordinance . . . . to the vote of the electors of the city, either at the general election or at a special municipal election to be called for that purpose; and such ordinance shall not go into effect or become operative unless a majority of the qualified electors voting on the same shall vote in favor thereof.

It was also provided that:

> Every franchise or grant for interurban or street railways, gas or waterworks, electric lights or power plants, telegraph or telephone systems, or other public service utilities within said city, must be authorized or approved by a majority of the electors voting thereon at a special election called for that purpose by the council.

In any city of the state, qualified under this act, if 25 per cent of the duly qualified electors so petition, the mayor shall submit the question of organization under this act at a special election. A clause also provides that if after six years from the date of adoption 33 per cent of the electors so petition, a special election shall be held to decide whether the commission government shall be abandoned and a return made to the original charter.[1]

It will readily be seen that the framers of the above act drew freely upon the experience of the state of Kansas, and of Galveston, Des Moines, Boston, and other cities, but that they have introduced important modifications to suit local conditions.

For the city of New Orleans a special commission form charter was passed. Many of the features of the old charter have been retained, the initiative, referendum, and recall have been adopted, and penalties for the violation of any of the provisions of the act have been provided for. It provides for a commission council consisting of a mayor and four councilmen at large, to be selected "by the preponderance of the votes" cast at the municipal election, and to hold office for four years. Each of the five is required, before entering upon the duties of office, to give a bond in favor of the city of New Orleans in the amount of $50,000 for the faithful performance of his duty. The mayor is to receive an annual salary of $10,000; each of the commissioners, $6000. The mayor is to be commissioner of public affairs; the other departments are to be assigned by majority vote at the first council meeting.

"The mayor and commission councilmen may be removed from office or recalled therefrom in the manner now or hereafter provided by the constitution." The percentage required for the popular initiative of ordinances is 30 per cent. The referendum clause is like the referendum clause in the general act outlined above, with the exception that the percentage required is 30 per cent instead of 25 per cent, as in that act. The council also has the power to directly refer certain ordinances to the voters.[2]

Provision was made for the submission of this act to the qualified voters of New Orleans, for their approval or disapproval, at a special election held August 28, 1912. The commission form of government was approved almost without opposition. A special primary election for the nomination of candidates for the five city offices will be held the first Tuesday in October, 1912. The election of mayor and commissioners takes place the following month.

In order to remedy the long existing evils resulting from officials refusing the public the right of examining their accounts, which evils were prevalent because of the expense and delay of proceedings by mandamus or injunction, a special act was passed. It defines what constitutes public records, states who are qualified to examine them, and provides penalties, not only in cases where such right of examination is refused, but also for examiners who violate the provisions of the act.[3]

An act creating a supervision of public accounts has been so amended as to give the governor the power to send the supervisor, popularly known as the "travelling auditor," into an examination of municipal accounts and to employ detectives to further investigations.[4]

Melvin Johnson White.[5]

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Legislative Investigations.—In the April number of the National Municipal Review,[6] was given a list of the investigations relating to municipal subjects authorized by the state legislatures in 1911. A large number of additional investigations on important subjects were authorized in 1912 particularly in Massachusetts, New Jersey and New York. The list follows with the date of the reports. Where the investigation is to be made by administrative officers that fact is noted. Otherwise it is to be made by a special commission appointed by the governor.

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[1] Act no. 207, 1912. [2] Act no. 159, 1912. [3] Act no. 242, 1912. [4] Act no. 77, 1912. [5] Tulane University. [6] April, 1912, p. 282.

Civil service and pensions, especially the operation of the New Jersey law. New Jersey, 1913.

Manner of selecting juries. New Jersey, 1913.

Tunnels and other means of communications across the Hudson, joint commission with New York. New Jersey, 1913.

Assessment for taxation. New Jersey, 1913.

State, administration, consolidation of state offices, having related functions. New Jersey, 1913.

Manufacturing conditions in cities of first and second class in New York, continued from 1912. New York, 1913.

Cost of living. Distribution of foodstuffs, etc., continued from 1912. New York, 1913.

Fire losses, life and property in the metropolitan district and prevention. Massachusetts, 1913.

Tuberculosis, definite policy for treatment. Massachusetts state board of health, 1913.

Corporations, relative to holdings of voluntary associations and corporations and consolidations. Attorney general, railroad commissioners and gas and electric light commissions, two senators and four representatives. Massachusetts, 1913.

Port of Boston, development. Directors of the Port, 1913.

Grade crossings-apportionment of cost. Massachusetts Board of Railroad Commissions, 1913.

Education of wards of the state or city of Boston. Compensation to cities and towns furnishing. State board of education, 1913.

Taxation-reimbursement of cities and towns for loss from the exemption of certain properties. Massachusetts, 1913.

Gas and electricity, codification of laws. Massachusetts, 1913.

Stocks and bonds, protection of public from sales of stocks and bonds. Massachusetts bank commissioner, attorney general and corporation commissioner, 1913.

Dependent children and mothers, support in the homes. Massachusetts, 1913.

Water supply, investigations of means of water supply for seventeen cities and towns. Massachusetts, 1913.

State office building, to provide accommodations for state officers. State house commission. Massachusetts, 1913.

Infantile paralysis, State board of health. Massachusetts, 1913.

Industrial education, to establish school in designing silverware and jewelry in Taunton. State board of education. Massachusetts, 1913.

——, investigate textile schools and schools for the deaf which are aided by the state. State board of education. Massachusetts, 1913.

Schools-transportation of pupils attending high schools. Massachusetts state board of education, 1913.

Election laws, codification, Massachusetts, 1913.

EVENTS AND PERSONALIA

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I. STRUCTURE OF GOVERNMENT

Home Rule For Ohio Cities.—The constitutional amendment submitted to the voters of Ohio on September 3, providing for municipal home rule, was adopted by a safe majority, although the official figures have not yet been reported. Forty-one other amendments were voted upon at the same election, six or seven of which will probably be defeated. No one of them was as bitterly opposed as was home rule. It had the united opposition of the public utility forces of the state. Tons of literature were scattered by hand and through the mails. Misrepresentation was resorted to without stint. The farmers were told that municipal home rule meant municipal ownership which would remove the public utilities with their enormous valuation from the tax duplicate and would mean a consequent increase in taxes to the farmer. The truck gardeners and dairy men were appealed to on the ground that the cities would soon enter into the truck farming and dairy business under the public utility clause of the amendment. The conservative forces in the cities were urged to vote against the threatened "orgy" of municipal ownership and operation. No less than ten separate pieces of literature were distributed over the state through the mails and through the factories by men employed by the opposition. Most of this literature was without the endorsement of any well known individuals or organizations. Some of it was mailed from New York and other cities outside of the state. Country newspapers were furnished with all of the boiler plate they would use.

But the opposition was seriously handicapped. Both political parties, in their state platforms, had endorsed the amendment; practically all of the daily papers in the larger cities were strongly favorable and the labor organizations throughout the state were committed to its support. Moreover, the preliminary campaign last winter conducted by the Municipal Association of Cleveland with its report on "Constitutional Home Rule for Cities," followed by the call of a municipal conference in Columbus composed of delegates from eighty-two cities, and the organization of the Ohio Municipal League proved so successful that little impression could be made on the favorable attitude then created. The cities of the state and newspapers were committed to the support of home rule in advance.

The opposition's chief influence was exerted in the rural and more thinly populated counties, but since the cities of Ohio now constitute more than 55 per cent of the population, the rural counties were practically helpless in the face of a heavy urban majority such as this amendment received. Cuyahoga County, with Cleveland, cast 49,845 for and only 9704 votes against the amendment.

The cities and villages of Ohio by this amendment are granted probably as flexible and complete home rule powers as have the cities of any state in the Union. If the constitutional convention had accepted the original draft as submitted to it by the conference of cities, Ohio would have been without question more advanced in this regard than any of the states; but the "drys" and the conservatives in the convention whittled down the proposal and added some safeguards which will make it possible for an ultra-conservative court to place restrictions upon the home rule powers which were never intended by the convention. This has been the experience in practically all of the states where the home rule principle has been established. The legal contest will undoubtedly center about the general grant of powers to the cities "to frame their own charters and to exercise thereunder all powers of local self government not in conflict with general laws."

FORMS OF CITY GOVERNMENT.—Under this amendment municipalities will have the option of choosing their own forms of government in any one of three ways:

(a) A city may elect a charter commission of fifteen citizens to frame a charter and submit it to the voters for approval.
(b) The legislature may enact into law several forms of charters, any one of which a city or village may adopt by vote of the people.
(c) A city or village may decide to be governed by the general municipal code under which they are now acting.

Under either of these forms of government cities and villages "shall have authority to exercise all powers of local self government and to adopt and enforce within their limits such local, police, sanitary and other similar regulations as are not in conflict with general laws."

PUBLIC UTILITIES.—The amendment fortunately settles the question of municipal ownership and operation of utilities, and thus will make the framing of a new charter much simpler and its adoption by the electorate much easier. Under this amendment municipalities may own and operate any public utility and may issue bonds therefor within the limit of bonded indebtedness fixed by law; and may also issue mortgage bonds beyond the limit of bonded indebtedness, provided the mortgage bonds are made a lien only on the property and revenues of the utility itself.

EXCESS CONDEMNATION.—The Ohio amendment goes further than any other state in its provisions for excess condemnation. The only other state that by constitutional amendment provides for this form of appropriation is Massachusetts, its terms are more limited in its extent than the Ohio provisions. The Ohio amendment provides that a municipality may not only appropriate or otherwise acquire property for a public use but "may, in furtherance of such public use, appropriate or acquire an excess other than that actually to be occupied by the improvement and may sell such excess with such restrictions as shall be appropriate to preserve the improvement made." The only limitation on this power is the provision that if the city issues bonds to pay for this excess in whole or in part, then the bonds must be "a lien only against the property so acquired for the improvement and the excess."

LIMITATIONS ON MUNICIPALITIES. — Care was taken to safe guard the general interests of the state by reserving specifically to the General Assembly the authority

(a) To limit the power of municipalities to levy taxes and incur debts.
(b) To control elections, education, public health and all other matters affecting the welfare of the state as a whole.
(c) To require from municipalities uniform reports as to their financial condition and to provide for the examination of the vouchers, books and accounts of all municipal authorities or of public undertakings conducted by such authorities.

These specific limitations together with the general limitation "not in conflict with general laws" give the state ample powers to protect the cities and villages from serious misgovernment.

CHARTER MAKING—The machinery by which a charter may be framed is similar in most respects to that in other home rule states, but differs in this particular: The legislative authority will pass an ordinance submitting to the voters the question "Shall a commission be chosen to frame a charter?" On the same ballot will appear the names of fifteen or more candidates for membership on the charter commission. These names will appear without party designations. The fifteen receiving the highest votes will constitute the commission.

The amendment goes into effect on November 15, and a number of the cities are already considering the advisability of calling an election to determine the above question and to select the fifteen commissioners. Cleveland is planning to be among the first.

During the next two or three years Ohio municipalities will give their attention to the extremely interesting and educative process of discussing, framing and choosing their own forms of government. The effect of this discussion on general public interest in municipal affairs cannot fail to be both stimulating and healthful. MAYO FESLER.

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The Recent Charter Campaign in Grand Rapids.—The recent proposed charter was patterned after a state or the federal constitution in that it divided the functions of government into legislative, executive, and judicial departments. It took from the legislative department, elected by the people from twelve wards, all powers possible to be taken away, and vested them in the administrative board. What functions of the legislative department could not be taken away, by reason of the requirements of the home rule act of the state, were made as difficult of execution as possible.

The chief issue was whether under the guise of home rule and local self-government the city should have a centralized, irresponsible, administrative board vested with vast discretionary powers. A corollary to this issue was the proposition that officers vested with discretionary governmental power should be elected; that the administrative board being appointed and thus not directly responsible to the people, should not be vested with such power.

All the administrative power of the city was vested in the administrative board to be composed of the mayor and the heads of four departments, called general managers, appointed by the mayor, confirmed by the council, to serve at the will of the mayor and subject to removal by him without cause.

The general managers were expected to be experts, chosen for their qualifications, with a view to business management of the departments. There was nothing in the charter, however, requiring them to have any qualifications whatever, and the probabilities were, under existing conditions in Grand Rapids, they would be political henchmen of the mayor's selecting. The mayor had veto power over the actions of the board except when the other four members were unanimous. The entire contractual power of the city, without approval by any other body, was vested in the administrative board. The right of referendum over all contracts, placed in the existing charter by reason of the "water deal" experience of the city in 1901, was taken out, the approving power of the council over contracts likewise abolished, and the council was specifically forbidden to alter or annul any contract.

The board of estimates was abolished; every department sent its budget applications direct to the council; the provision of the present charter requiring budget applications to be itemized was left out, and the council was given two weeks in which to prepare a budget by ordinance.

The construction of all public works was properly left to the administrative board, but that board was permitted to approve its own construction work. From the time the money was appropriated the council had nothing to do with its expenditure nor with the approval of the expenditure. The general manager of each department would spend all the money for his department and draw the vouchers therefor. So long as any balance was left in the particular account, the comptroller must allow the vouchers and the treasurer would pay them. The effect was that so long as the public moneys were spent for the purpose for which they were appropriated there was no checking power to determine whether the city got what it paid for. The application for the appropriation did not have to be itemized and the time within which the council could investigate the application was reduced to the minimum. The temptations for graft and dishonesty were strong and always present.

George C. Brown.

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Montreal Commission Government.—Montreal with its more than half a million inhabitants, is the largest city on this continent that has accepted the principle of government by commission. It is true that this acceptance is not complete, namely it has a board of commissioners or controllers composed of the mayor, and four members elected for four years, each receiving $10,000, which has the responsibility for the government of the city; but there is still retained the board of aldermen to whom the commissioners have to report, and who have the power of veto. The improvement in civic conditions during the two years and a half of the working of the new system has been remarkable, and with the improvement in the streets and economical employment of the city's funds, Montrealers are developing a civic pride and an interest in civic affairs hitherto unknown.

There are, however, dangers looming ahead. The power of veto possessed by the city council is being employed to harass the controllers and to delay improvements with the ulterior object of discrediting the system and bringing about a return to old conditions. The plot, however, is so obvious, and the good faith of the board of controllers so well established that there is already abundant evidence that these machinations are recoiling upon the heads of the plotters, so that if these tactics continue it appears not unlikely that the city and citizens will promote a bill to do away with the aldermen rather than with the controllers.

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Denver City Charter Amendments.—Three amendments to the city charter of Denver were voted on at the city election, May 21. One provided for a special tax of one-half mill on the dollar for five years for the purchase and improvement of park lands in the mountains near Denver; another provided for a playgrounds commission and a special tax of one mill for playground purposes; and a third provided that violators of the excise laws shall be tried in the county court. The defendant may have his license revoked or be fined if found guilty and no license is to be granted to a person twice committed of violating the excise laws. The mountain park and excise amendments were carried, but the playground measure was lost.

As a result Denver is to have "something different" in the way of a park system. The first park the city is likely to buy is the range, five miles distant from the city, which include Mount Morrison. Tentative plans call for improvements which will preserve as many of the wild features as possible and make them accessible by the construction of good roads and trolley lines.

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Greater Wheeling.—Under the leadership of the board of trade and the Municipal League, a campaign for a Greater Wheeling and commission government has been started.. It is proposed to unite Wheeling and its West Virginia suburbs under commission government. At the present time there are about 150,000 people in Wheeling and its immediate vicinity.

II. FUNCTIONS

Australian Federal Capital Plan.—The considerations that determined the location of the federal district of the commonwealth of Australia at Yass-Canberra, seventy-five miles inland in New South Wales, were probably the scenic beauty and the equable, bracing climate. The great industrial regions will no doubt gravitate sometimes to the more fecund tropical tracts of the island continent. The federal district is a plateau region of some 900 square miles bounded and intersected by the evergreen mountain ranges of the Australian Alps, with intervening meadowed vales, and will serve not only as a great federal park, but as a water shed of the Cotter River for an ample pure gravity water supply for the capital city. It is at present a region richest in flora and fauna of any in the state, in years of extreme drought affording refuge to the wild life of the surrounding country, while its clear waters perpetually teem with fish.

The spot selected for the city itself, four miles square, with a large portion of flat and gently undulating land dotted with a few conspicuous hills, averages about 2000 feet above the sea, is admirably drained and set in a rugged amphitheater of foot hills flanked by three considerable mountains backed by beautiful blue ranges with occasional snow-capped peaks. In the natural state the only water course in the city site is a small winding stream whose willowed banks in the flat lands practically conceal its waters in any general view of the landscape. On the whole the setting is one that would be appropriate for any inland city and possesses that degree of superior advantages that might be expected to result generally from the opportunity for intelligent selection in advance of occupation.

In formulating schemes for the development of this site into a capital the designers were allowed almost unrestricted scope as to forecasting ultimate needs, even as to the disposition of railroad and all other external artificial influences.

The first step governing the distribution of the activities for which a city must provide, involves analysis of the possibilities of the dominating site characteristics. In the case of the Yass-Canberra location the salient features may be summaried as follows:

1. The sheltering, forested ranges and distant snow-capped peaks to the southward and westward for background.
2. The three local mountains in and about, 700 feet above the city for aspect and prospect: conical Ainslie at the northeast corner, round topped Black Mountain near the northwest corner and to a lesser degree, irregular flat-topped Mugga Mugga just beyond the southern limits.
3. The lesser hills rising to 200 feet above the city plain for the sites of the most important structures, the center of busiest groups making of them as terminals of radial thoroughfares, at the same time most conspicuous and most accessible.
4. The water way and its flood bottoms as water basins for landscape and architectural effect, recreation and amelioration of a characteristic climatic tendency toward hot dry spells.
5. The remaining generally flat valleys for purposes of general industry and habitation.

The individuality of cities grows as much out of the nature of the work they must house as out of their sites. The monumental scale and imposing function of the government of a continent is an extreme case of specialization of occupation but in no case exceptional except in its magnitude. Here, however, government though the chief is not the only function of the capital which is required to provide public museum and recreation headquarters, the national university and a military post in addition, all of which under one supreme authority are capable of being made to contribute to an aggregate expression which necessarily takes precedence over the other and more general requirements. The arrangement of these groups dominating an entire city follows the same laws as the arranging of rooms for them might in a single building. The fitting of them to the site characteristics as enumerated suggested naturally the placing of the government group so as to extend on terraces from the highest of the internal hills in front of the sheltering background to the south side of a central water basin, thus forming, as it were, a stage setting, set off by a broad basin from the slopes of the opposite shore, the auditorium as it were, where are located the public gardens with a stadium in center, theaters behind and museums, galleries, baths, gymnasia and zoölogical structures stretching out on either side, in turn backed by the business portions of the city where the greatest throngs could benefit by a prospect of the ensemble. The high, isolated conical peak, Ainslie behind, in turn forms the final vantage point for the comprehensive spectacle of the whole.

Of the other federal groups, the university finds its appropriate setting in the hilly site in front of Black Mountain behind its own circular water basin, half a mile in diameter, which affords the first link of a grand water axis which, starting from Black Mountain, extends at right angles with the axis of the other groups and which, prolonged through the central basin, one mile long, and through another circular terminal basin at the other end, is still further prolonged to the far shores of an irregular upper lake from which rises a precipitous, bald knob where the military headquarters take on the characteristics of a citadel.

In general this arrangement of all the federal buildings on heights about two coördinate garden front axes, the individual groups set off and connected by formal water basins forms one dominant grouping of parallel-set buildings around which the possible confusion and hubbub of other enterprises must always remain subordinate.

However, the buildings of the municipality affords further opportunity for extending the harmonious public groupings. They are made to conform with the axes of the federal group by the location of their two centers, first that of municipal affairs and administration and second that of the markets and railway station equi-distant from the center of the federal grouping to form the terminals of an avenue which may be considered a secondary axis, parallel with the water axis.

Avenues of about a mile and a third connecting the regions of the two municipal centers with each other and with that of the executive apex of the federal group, form together a triangular circuit surrounding the governmental department and recreation groups (with the one mile long basin between) and connect the capitol, university and military groups. This triangle may be considered as typical of the main divisions into which the city is platted which are triangular, the object being to concentrate traffic and travel along lines directly connecting important points, at the same time leaving inter-spaces that are easily accessible yet without the necessity for long cross thoroughfares and therefore free for large and varied units of subdivision to suit special needs. Thus it is possible to have within the city a chain of five lakes varying between one half mile and two miles in diameter as well as federal departments, public gardens, university and a military post, which are quarters of ample area, yet which suffer a minimum of interference from and present a minimum of interference with the city traffic circulation. The bulk of the area of the city is similarly available for residence settlement relatively secluded and free from probable intrusion of business.

Whereas the subdivisions of the public groups take the forms of courts, quadrangles or other congregations of massive structures on the one hand or large open areas of water, hill or plain on the other hand, the subdivisions for smaller units of private occupations can also be determined primarily by architectural and utilitarian needs rather than according to exigencies of communication lines. In general rectangular plots of various shapes and size afford the best building sites and permit an orderly relationship between structures. Stub streets that are not blind alleys permit easy communication without encouraging through traffic and afford terminal sites and commanding vistas. In the flatter regions, therefore, such arrangement is obtained by keeping the distribution street systems parallel with or perpendicular to their nearest circulation avenue, the blocks adjacent to which are provided with shipping alleys and are shallower and shorter than those farther back. where unit block lengths of 1000 feet are often allowable and considerable depth for garden area is possible without interference with the normal circulation of the city. That the city of the future must provide far greater area per family than have those that evolved from the walled-in pedestrian-transit periods is evidenced from the relative death rates of about two to one between Liverpool and Port Sunlight or Birmingham and Bourneville or London and Letchworth or Hampstead Garden suburb.

The intersection between the divergent rectangular systems is accomplished without acute corners anywhere by confining the change of direction of the ring cross street to the middle portion of block frontages affording a degree of informality in building arrangement at the points farthest from the busiest thoroughfares and where the space and latitude for varying treatment is the greatest.

Hilly regions adapted to finer residence purposes are frequent in the site and invite irregular rounded plots rising above the ravines through which the winding thoroughfares are directed as far as possible.

The apices of the triangular plots are typically the points of convergence of at least six avenues and consequently the centers of those trades and industries demanding general patronage and requiring general distributive facilities, the arterial avenues themselves being adaptable for the location of trades whose patronage and delivery are concerned primarily with the local needs of the inhabitants, or of the special interest occupying the contiguous portions of the triangular areas. This is a lineal alignment of trade such as has evolved with the improved street transportation systems of cities in general as shown in the old main roads leading out from town which have been transformed into miles of stores as they have become absorbed in the bulk of our metropolitan cities.

Of the three convergent points already mentioned, the one at the junction of the two sides of the governmental triangle where is established the executive capitol has radiating from it altogether eight traffic avenues, none of which, however, approaches nearer the structures than the limits of a park a half mile in diameter embracing the capitol hill. Three of these avenues lead to rocky fastnesses of the higher residence districts. Moreover the executive department while the principal focus of the government group can by no means be considered a business center nor will it be possible for a congestion of street traffic to occur at such a large round point. Similarly the municipal administrative center and the station and market center are disposed as groups around occupied central features and elevated building sites easing the circulation and preventing the development of congestion rising out of crossing concentration.

Following the example of many German cities, lines of growth definitely foreseen are supplemented by provision for other development that may or may not eventuate. Five outlying centers, one for residential suburb, one for manufacturing and three for horticultural and semi-agricultural pursuits are allotted, respective sites that seem most advantageous through scenic setting railroad facilities or soil conditions as the case may be. The object of early establishing these centers is, of course, largely to prevent misdirected improvement or speculative experiment and will have further justification in fixing the character of the lines which are circulatory the direct through lines of communication whose aim it is to take care of the motor, tram and long distance traffic of the city. These streets are in all cases 200 feet wide allowing not only for three separate paved ways to accommodate tram and fast and slow vehicles, but for tree and shrub accompaniment to render them as satisfactory parkways as are narrow boulevards restricted to the aristocratic private vehicles and even with larger possibilities because of the greater importance in the structures facing them.

There are recreational drives through the public gardens, parks and mountain reservations. They form continuous lines along the embankments of the triple basins in the heart of the city which are arranged for circulation.

For the greatest proportion of the city streets however, the function of circulation is subordinate to that of distribution to and from the wide tram and vehicle ways. These tributary streets are of less width and formality with narrower pavements and greater areas of unintersected blocks proportionate to the less demand for publicity in the occupation served. It is not necessary that the precise nature of this street development be determined far in advance of the actual use of many of those districts lying between the main thoroughfares, and possibilities need not be denied to individual initiative and imagination to work out with comparatively free hand, architectural and landscape developments of recessed, courts, closes, quadrangle, terraces, driveway subdivisions, garden commons and irregular hill gardens.

There is better possibility for a satisfactory development to take place in this capital than has perhaps ever been afforded to a city.

Here is a whole district of 900 square miles to be held and controlled by a single unhampered governmental authority backed by the taxing power of the country starting with an organic plan and capable of directing improvement so that the immediate consequences of its activities to land values can be foreseen, even directed.

Starting with a mean site cost of $5 per acre the result from keeping forever the land rent for the support and development of the public works of the city, as is now the announced policy of the Australian government, can be realized by comparison with the tremendous values created for private owners during the past thirty years of governmental activity in Washington, D. C., with the rentals now raised from the square mile of the heart of Chicago that formerly belonged to the school district and of which the few scattered parcels that have been retained contribute so largely to the support of public education there or by citing the fact that the cost to Australia of repurchasing now the entire federal district is less than the amount required, for instance to obtain a suitable site in Sydney for a single parliament house.

It is on some such terms of leasehold as are now made between builders of city blocks and private land holders generally that the private improvers of Australia's capital will instead deal with the state.

Stimulus greater than elsewhere to easy development may be expected too from the avoidance through the policy of the inconveniences and the waste in useless travel and service equipment around a tremendous proportion of area that in our cities is vacant or withheld from effective use for private speculation in increment values.[1]

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[1] An American, Walter Burley Griffin, of Chicago, won the prize open to the citizens of all countries for the best plans for the new Australian capital (see NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. i, p. 136). This item is based upon the plans prepared by Mr. Griffin. It is interesting not only in itself as a contribution to city planning, but because of the prominence it gives to American architects in this particular field.—EDITOR

Seattle's Parks—The parks of Seattle may be taken as a guage of the growth, prosperity and public spirit of that enterprising city. Seattle has now 1267 acres of parks, equivalent to one acre to every 244 of the population. Altogether there are 34 parks, 20 miles of completed boulevards and park drives and 31 playgrounds, 12 of which are equipped with apparatus and supervised. The park board has control also of 59 small open spaces in different parts of the city. It does not control, however, the great high school stadium, one of the most remarkable open air public recreation centers in the United States. These figures make an enviable showing, especially when it is recalled that nearly all of this park making has been accomplished in a single decade—practically since 1903 when the Olmsted plans were approved and adequate powers granted. Notwithstanding the extent of Seattle's park system, its claim to having "the largest system west of Chicago" may be safely challenged by Kansas City. The parks and playgrounds of Seattle have cost nearly $5,000,000 and the annual appropriation for maintenance now exceeds $1,000,000, the regular annual park tax being three-fourths of a mill on the assessed valuation of property. The public spirit of Seattle is shown in the fact that so many of its parks have been gifts to the city and further that the citizens have never yet been called upon to vote "No" on a park bond issue. Seattle is not content merely to acquire parks: it plans definitely to have them used. To this end, it prints and distributes through the libraries, schools, hotels, etc., an illustrated pamphlet describing the parks, with full information as to their character and location and the convenient ways of reaching them.

John Nolen.

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Roadtown, The Endless House.—As a substitute for block dwellings and isolated houses and as a solution of the problem of the best economic and hygienic arrangement of both public and domestic services and their supply from a common source for a large community, Edgar S. Chambless, of New York, suggests the latest thing in utopias, the roadtown, or the endless house. *The Municipal Journal,* May 27, 1910, thus illustrates the suggestion:

> Cover up the London and Northwestern Railway from London to Liverpool, include gas and water pipes, electricity supply, and telephone conductors in the tube thus formed; superimpose a continuous three or four-story building for the whole distance; divide the building into, say, 50,000 houses; provide a means of access from each house to the underlying railway, make a roadway of the continuous roof, and you have "Roadtown" on a small scale.

The Journal aptly comments upon the scheme of Mr. Chambless, "The economic aspects of Roadtown affords matter for interesting speculations."

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Chicago Plan Shows Progress.—The immediate construction work by the city on the Chicago plan is progressing. The widening of Twelfth Street is now in the hands of the court commissioners, and the zone of assessment has practically been fixed, the valuations on buildings and property to be condemned are complete, and all is nearly in readiness for the trial of the condemnation suit, after which it will be necessary to submit the matter to the people in a referendum for the bond issue necessary to defray the expense of construction work. The improvement of Michigan Avenue is in the hands of the board of local improvements. Last July the board voted to have an estimate prepared of the cost, work on which is nearly complete. It has been a tremendous task for the municipal engineering department on account of the structural nature of the work entailed by the two level plan and the double deck bascule bridge over the river, the first of its kind to be constructed anywhere. The improvement of the lake front has been delayed by a strong opposition on the part of a small citizen's committee, whose agitation forced the whole project into a chaotic condition. Concessions, however, are being made on all sides and a speedy adjustment of difficulties is expected.

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Chicago Suburban Citizens take Hand in City Improvement.—Tired of seeing a row of unsightly business buildings as they alight at the Northwestern Station, twenty-five millionaires of Lake Forest have subscribed $10,000 each to clean up Main Street in front of the station and make the gateway to their wealthy residential district worthy of its position.

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Des Moines Brilliant Financial Record Under Commission Government.—On the whole, no part of the commission administration of Des Moines is more brilliant than its financial record. During the five years of the operation of the commission government, the taxes for purely municipal purposes, have averaged practically 37 mills against 39½ mills during the last eight years of the old plan of government, a reduction of 2½ mills. This is true in spite of the fact that the city has made more public improvements in the last five years than in any like period in its history, and that, furthermore, a very large part of the improvements were made out of current funds. Two years ago the city spent $50,000 out of current funds for building permanent roads into the country. The city has invested in its civic center $700,000, more than one-third of which has already been paid out of current funds. The city has been involved in litigation with the street railway, water and gas companies at an expense of $100,000 out of current funds, one result of which was a reduction of the gas rate from $1 to 90 cents per 1000 cubic feet, thereby saving the citizens $60,000.

Memphis Commission Government.—The Memphis commission government, in spite of a strenuous defense of its own existence, has had time not only to extend the sewerage and paving of the city but also to reduce the cost of lighting, establish an efficient purchasing agency and an adequate system of accounts, and inaugurate a municipal program including a tuberculosis and a communicable diseases hospital, municipal baths and a board of charities. Under its administration the tax rate was reduced to $1.59 per $100.

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Street Car Sanitation in Kansas City, Mo.—Each year for the past three years the public health committee of the City Club of Kansas City has laid before the management of the Kansas City Metropolitan Street Car System and before the local board of health the committee's observations and recommendations on the ventilation and cleaning of the street cars and the prevention of the fouling of the cars by expectoration. and dropping refuse.

The company's officers have received the committee cordially, have afterwards consulted with it as to methods, and are now sending most of their cars out every morning very much cleaner than before. The offending "expectorators" are now very often spoken to by the conductors—with a consequent lessening of the habit.

With the approval of the committee the railway has printed on the back of its "transfers" requests to desist from expectoration and from placing refuse on the car floors, but such transfers are used only during a short period in the spring. The committee advised their use at frequent intervals through the year and especially during the winter months. The committee's suggestion that "Do Not Spit" signs be placed in the cars was not followed.

At the suggestion of the committee the board of health has periodically arrested expectorators. This, with newspaper publicity has been a salutary influence, but has not been carried on as constantly as the committee feels that it should be. The committee believes that conditions are very much better than they have been but that constant service and publicity must continue for years.

A perfect system has not yet been applied to the cars of this city. The ventilation of a street car should be automatic in action, and impossible of manipulation by either conductor or passenger. It has been noticeable this winter in the larger, new cars, that frequently the passengers were practically sealed up in air-tight cars or else were subjected to drafts and rain or snow through misadjusted ventilators.

Scott P. Childs.

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San Francisco Municipal Street Railways.—San Francisco will be the first large city in the United States to own and operate a municipal street railway system. The history of the undertaking begins with the expiration of the franchise of the Geary Street, Park and Ocean Railway in 1908. Since that time the city has been pushing plans to reconstruct and operate a line along the route of that railway, and in 1909, the matter was well enough advanced for the city to issue bonds to the amount of $2,020,000. Various delays again retarded actual constructive work, and it was not until last May that contracts were signed under which real work has commenced. The route extends along Geary Street and Point Lobos Avenue to Fifth Avenue to Golden Gate Park.

Since May the mayor has given orders to the board of public works to prepare plans for the construction of a road from the terminus of the Geary Street line at Geary and Market Streets, down Market to Sansome, where connection will be made with the tracks of the United Railroads, against which there is a decree of forfeiture by the superior court now under appeal to the appellate court. The Union Street line running from the ferries to Columbus Avenue, to Union Street thence to the Presidio, will fall into the hands of the city December, 1913, by the expiration of franchise grants.

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English Municipal Ownership Profits.—James Carter, borough treasurer of Preston, an English town of 117,000 population, has recently compiled the statistics of 86 towns of England and Wales bearing upon the effect of municipal trading for the year 1911–12. This compilation shows 82 of the 86 towns contributing something for relief of taxes. The total of these contributions was $7,156,285. Thirty-nine of these same towns, and four others, operated certain undertakings that were not self sustaining. Taxes to the amount of $1,822,795 had to be levied to meet deficits, leaving a net total of $5,947,400 contributed to the relief of taxation. Altogether only 13 out of 86 took more from taxes to support public undertakings than they took from the latter to relieve the former.

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Two Harbors' Municipal Coal.—Under the authority of the council, granted December 4, 1911, the city of Two Harbors leased ground from the Duluth and Iron Range Railroad Company, which is a branch of the United States Steel Corporation, to build a coal shed and arranged with the Carnegie Fuel Company of Duluth for obtaining coal at wholesale prices. Under the municipal plans, the city took orders, bought against orders on file, collected payments and paid cash from a separate coal fund distinct from the city funds. The city announced a scale of prices 35 cents a ton under the established price for nut, 60 cents under for other anthracite and 75 cents under for soft coal. It contracted with a teamster to deliver the coal at 43 cents a ton, and had allowed 10 cents a ton for clerks' fees. The cost and charges left in the hands of the city on the first car of nut

$9.61, or about 35 cents a ton; and on two cars of soft coal about 18 cents a ton. The wholesalers of the city, as was anticipated, raised objections, and the fuel company declared that the city must be a member of the Retail Coal Dealers Association to continue to enjoy its privileges with the company. Application was made to the association, which is an organization covering six states, but membership was refused. Complaint has been made to the federal government, and the situation is now under investigation by the Department of Justice relative to the presence of restraint of trade. The dealers deny any unlawful practice, maintaining that the field is open to anybody but that the city is not a proper body for membership in the association.

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English Municipal Coal.—The London Municipal Journal quotes an English newspaper as saying: "Remarkable scenes were witnessed at Middleborough yesterday. For hours a stream of people invaded the Town Hall to give orders for coal which the corporation had secured for sale at about half the prices charged by the retailers. No less than 300 tons were sold in 5 cwt, parcels at ls. 7d. to ls. 9d. per cwt." No wonder that Bradford, Glasgow and other English corporations are seriously considering plans for establishing corporation coal supplies.

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Los Angeles Municipal Cement Mill.—The Los Angeles Cement Mill is notable for being the first and only one in the United States and for enabling the city to make large savings in the construction of its two hundred and forty miles of steel and concrete aqueduct by the introduction of tufa cement to American builders. The approximate cost of the tufa cement under municipal production was 85 cents a barrel. An article in the Municipal Journal thus comments upon this cost: "No cement mill in the country can compete with the city at this figure, and field and laboratory tests show the product to be equal, if not superior, to any hydraulic cement in the market."

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Municipal Amusements.—There seems to be a good deal of uncertainty as to just where municipal functions begin and end. Municipal band concerts are a familiar form of entertainment all over the country. It remains for Houston, Tex., however, to elaborate the idea in carrying out the city's plans for concerts both summer and winter, and utilizing the auditorium, which seats 8000, for lectures and entertainments and especially moving picture shows which will be given on Sunday afternoons and evenings as well as on week days. A town in Kansas, (Haven) is now operating a "nickel theatre" giving moving picture shows at a nominal admission and free entertainment when a surplus is piled up. Another town in Kansas, Concordia, has the distinction of having the first municipal theatre, which is a gift from Mrs. G. C. Brown in memory of her husband.

III. POLITICS

Henry J. Arnold, the new mayor of Denver, elected by 20,000 plurality and all of his running mates upon the Citizens' ticket headed by Judge Ben B. Lindsey won. It was essentially a landslide in which the average voter buried the old city hall organization.

William G. Evans, a traction magnate, led the Republican campaign, his candidate being Dewey C. Bailey. Mayor Robert W. Speer was the Democratic leader, his candidate being J. B. Hunter. It was probably the bitterest political fight in the history of Denver, where there have been many bitter political fights. As one commentator declares "Unless everybody forgets what was said in the heat of passion there should be libel cases for the courts for the next year, for nobody took pains to mince words."

Denver has woman suffrage, so that the vote was extremely heavy, approximately as many women as men having engaged in the contest. No analysis of the vote is yet available to show the part played by women in the contest.

The motto of the new movement is, "Retrenchment, Economy and Reform." Perhaps the most significant and creditable result of the election was the vote for Judge Ben Lindsey, who was overwhelmingly re-elected to the juvenile court, which is recognized as an example and inspiration. Judge Lindsey's comment on the Citizens' victory is, "The city is going to be more prosperous and beautiful than ever with its community wealth for the people and not their exploiters. . . . . There was a clear line up between the Progressive and reactionary elements in the two old parties."

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Detroit Graft.—On July 26, eight aldermen and the secretary of the common council committee of Detroit were placed under arrest on the charge of accepting bribes for their votes and influence in passing on a measure effecting city property recently transferred to the Wabash Railroad. It is alleged that $3700 passed hands in sums of from $100 to $1000.

The investigation which culminated in the arrests was started in February, when rumors of irregularities in the councilmanic body began to assume serious proportions. Mayor W. B. Thompson sought the assistance of the Burns detective force, and Andrew H. Green, Jr., a prominent manufacturer, agreed to finance the probe. Soon after the investigation was begun the Wabash Railroad applied for the closing of a street on the ground that it wanted to erect a warehouse and to otherwise increase its shipping facilities. The application was opposed in councils for a time. Then suddenly councils granted the application by the vote of several members who had previously opposed the measure. Meanwhile, a member of the Burns force, who had represented himself as a land agent for the Wabash, had entered, according to the charges, into negotiations with the secretary of the common council committees. He attended meetings of the committee on streets, meetings of the whole council, inspections of property concerned. Finally, it was decided, it is alleged, that several who had been opposing the measure would withdraw their opposition for $100 each; others demanding more, delayed action several days. It was then agreed that different sums, if necessary, would be allowed, and the aldermen began to draw their money. Disclosures and arrests followed. R. E. Schreiter, Jr., secretary of the common council committees and also secretary of the American League of Municipalities, plead guilty. Thomas Glinnan, president of the council, and professedly a champion of the people's rights, confessed and with him one other alderman. He had been paid $1000 in marked bills in the detective's office just before the arrest. He took them out, handed them back, sat down and made a complete confession. Other aldermen have made partial confessions. Since then other aldermen, in all eighteen, have been arrested upon additional charges of grafting. Eight of the aldermen involved were renominated at the September primary.

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Minnesota Special Legislative Session Effects Municipalities.—The results of the thirteen day special session of the Minnesota legislature, convened last June by Governor Eberhard, is significant in its accomplishments, and in showing the changing temper of the people of Minnesota in the matter of government and administration. The legislative results are apparently a direct outcome of the militant work of the reform element in the state during the last regular session. In the corrupt practices act, the statewide primary and the non-partisan election for the three large cities, which passed the special session, three of the five fundamental things the progressives have been fighting for during the last four years were made law.

The non-partisan elections for the three cities of Minneapolis, St. Paul and Duluth, are of special interest. At a non-partisan primary two men are to be named for each office, who are to fight it out at the city elections. This move was initiated by Senator Dwinnell of Minneapolis and was inspired in part by a desire to secure a combined opposition in Minneapolis against the Socialist candidate for mayor at the coming election. He lost out by only 500 votes in the triple contest in 1911 and was generally picked as a sure winner this year. It is now expected that the Socialist tide will be stemmed. Undoubtedly at the regular session of next year, the other essentials that have long been striven for—direct legislation and a state wide civil service act will be enacted.

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Duluth, Minn.—Has adopted the initiative, referendum and recall, following a vote favorable to municipal ownership of the lighting plant. The city owns the water and gas and has administered that with great satisfaction for fifteen years.

At the city election in February the vote on the municipal electric plant was favorable but an unfriendly council and a mayor of "good fellow" antecedents were elected. A petition was set on foot for a charter amendment for initiative, referendum and recall. As to charter amendments, the law of initiative was already in effect. The signatures came spontaneously, twice the number needed in three days. Twenty-four hours later the unfriendly council adopted a resolution declaring itself for municipal ownership and asking the private company for a price on its plant.

The charter amendments, at a special election, May 7, carried 5331 to 1296. The labor unions, the churches, the organizations resulting from the "men and religion movement," various semi-political and semi-social clubs and naturally the temperance bodies, threw themselves into it. Public meetings in churches was a feature of the short and brisk campaign.

John S. Pardee.

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The New York Situation.—It is too early to write fully about the extraordinary situation in New York growing out of the murder of Herman Rosenthal on the eve of his intended statement to the district attorney concerning the relation of the police department to the protection of gambling. In connection with the murder a number of arrests have been made and a number of indictments have been found. There has also been instituted an aldermanic investigation to find out the causes for the present situation. In addition to that a citizens' committee has been created to give attention to the general features of the problem. We hope to have an extended item concerning the situation in the January issue.

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Philadelphia Taxpayers Committee Recovers Misspent Funds.—As a result of the suit in equity instituted by the Philadelphia Taxpayers' Committee on City Finances in the fall of 1910, the Filbert Paving and Construction Company has been ordered by the courts to pay back to the city $66,826.44. It developed in the proceedings that while the company proposed under the contract to resurface asphalt streets in areas in excess of 500 square yards in single blocks for 20 cents a square yard, and areas less than 500, 75 cents a square yard, the work was so ordered or arbitrarily measured that the company collected 75 cents per square yard for 95 per cent of the work done.

Oakland Recall Attempt Fails.—Oakland voters refused to recall Mayor Frank K. Mott and Commissioners F. C. Turner and W. J. Backus, whom the Industrial Workers of the World sought to have thrown out of office. The advocates of the recall made the charge that the administration was in league with the underworld and that vice and crime were being protected. A unique feature of the election day was the periodical blowing of all the steam whistles in town to remind the voters of their duty to cast their ballots.

IV. MEETINGS AND ORGANIZATIONS

City Planning Conference.—Following the three successful conferences on city planning held at Washington, Rochester, and Philadelphia, a fourth was held at Boston during the latter part of May, 1912. The great number of existing associations devoted to municipal affairs and perhaps some uncertainty as to the status of city planning in America have led those responsible for these conferences to refrain from trying to establish a formal association. Instead, a general and an executive committee have been entrusted with the arrangements for each succeeding conference. This form of organization was continued for 1912–1913, and Frederick Law Olmsted, of Brookline, Mass., was continued as chairman and Flavel Shurtleff of 19 Congress Street, Boston, as secretary.

The Boston program was notable for its concentration on a few main topics, generally one to a session. This afforded that opportunity for discussion which is so generally lacking at most conventions, with their overloaded programs of diverse subjects. An open or free-for-all session resulted chiefly in desultory discussion, although a preference vote had been taken earlier in the convention on the topics that should be brought up. At this session no one person was expected to speak more than five minutes on any given subject, but it is a rare chairman who will try to enforce such a rule and a rarer audience that will support him in the attempt. The rule was badly broken in this instance.

The first formal session had as its general subject, "The Meaning and Progress of City Planning." Mr. Olmsted gave a general review of the present status of city planning. While nearly all cities exercise a nominal control of the opening of new streets this control is generally little more than what is associated with the services of surveyor, draftsman and clerk for private street openings. The few rules which usually exist do not often extend beyond such matters as minimum street widths. Rarely is there any comprehensive street planning and when there is such it is generally spasmodic. There are a few aggressive street planning bureaus but as a rule they have not grasped the principles of city planning.

In general, there is little or no coöperation with the various city bureaus which have charge of streets, sewers, water works and parks. Spasmodic planning commissions do some good. None of the permanent commissions have yet done much but this is partly because they are so young.

Arnold W. Brunner, of New York City, expressed the belief that the city plan should be the work of several men or of a committee—experts in various lines working together. Prof. George F. Swain, head of the civil engineering department of Harvard University, voiced the same general idea and dwelt at some length on the marked degree in which city planning falls within the province of the engineer, a fact not yet sufficiently recognized by either the engineer or the public.

Under the title, "Paying the Bills for City Improvements," Nelson P. Lewis, chief engineer of the board of estimate and apportionment, New York City, made a strong plea for assessing upon the property benefited the cost of all improvements that increase land values, instead of putting this cost on the whole body of taxpayers and letting the property benefited pocket the resulting increment of value. He illustrated his points by practice in New York City, where the principle advocated has been in force for a number of years past and has been worked out in its practical scientific application by engineers.

Continuing the same general topic, Mr. James A. Gallivan, street commissioner, Boston, Mass., told how the real estate interests of Boston have shifted an ever-increasing portion of the cost of street improvements from the property immediately benefited and onto the general taxpayer. Mr. Gallivan also discussed excess condemnation, or the acquisition by the city of land adjacent to improvements, with its subsequent resale at a profit to cover the cost of improvements. A specific study of a costly street widening scheme for Boston indicated that excess condemnation would not be practicable, but a study of a smaller scheme indicated the reverse. In the discussion which ensued, the principle of excess condemnation met with general approval.

The next general subject for discussion was "City Planning Studies." J. R. Coolidge, of Boston, read a suggestive paper on "Blighted Districts," or areas where land values are stationary or declining. It should be the duty of the city to diagnose the cause of such blights and apply remedies for their removal. Remedies suggested were a lowering of taxes and the making of improvements. If, for instance, the blight is due to an elevated railway a parallel street may be improved. Lawson Purdy, of New York City, in discussing the paper said that declining values are the fault of the city, and cited property in lower New York, west of Broadway, as an instance of decline due to a lack of city planning—in this case a failure to provide sufficient facilities for north and south traffic.

A series of addresses on "The Public Street Systems of the Cities and Towns about Boston in Relation to Private Street Schemes" was opened by Arthur A. Shurtleff, of Boston. Lantern-slides were used to show how nearly the Boston metropolitan district comes to having a complete radial street system and how easily, as far as physical conditions are concerned, it might have a system of circumferential streets. The radial street system came into existence, not from systematic coöperative planning but because all the outlying towns wished roads into Boston. The elements of a circumferential system, consisting of isolated arcs of circles, have never been joined because (1) most of the traffic is Boston-ward or radial rather than from town to town circumferentially, and (2) because circumferential movement not being imperative owners of private property have been allowed to develop their land as they chose or to hold it from development, and there has been neither public nor private co-operation for circumferential highways. The city engineers of several cities adjoining or near Boston reinforced Mr. Shurtleff's remarks with specific local examples showing how real estate owners have blocked through street connections.

The final paper on the program was entitled "The Control of the Zone System by German Cities and its Application in the United States," by B. Antrim Haldeman, assistant engineer, bureau of surveys, Philadelphia. The origin, object and application of the zone or district system in Germany was described. The growing need for such a system in the United States and the obstacles in its way were discussed. The author expressed the belief that with the changing state of public opinion regarding the sanctity of "vested rights" as against the rights of society at large it is reasonable to expect that the zone or district system may yet be introduced in the United States. By this means housing conditions would be improved, transportation problems simplified, and the invasion of residence districts by manufacturing plants, for no other reason than the self interest of the manufacturer, would be prevented.

M. N. Baker.

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The American Water Works Association, which held its thirty-second annual convention at Louisville, Ky., June 3 to 8, 1912, has a membership of nearly a thousand, including the associate members, or manufacturers of and dealers in water works supplies. The active membership consists chiefly of superintendents and managers of water works. Members of water boards and other officials are also included. Civil and sanitary engineers, chemists and bacteriologists, both connected with water works and in private practice, make up a small, but fair percentage of the membership and probably contribute half or more of the papers, committee reports and discussions.

At Louisville the program included some fifteen committee reports, twenty papers and a long list of subjects for informal discussion which had been submitted by members or made up by the secretary in advance of the meeting, printed and mailed to members, under the general title Question Box. In addition, the program included visits to the filtration and pumping plants of the Louisville water works.

Prominent among the committees of the association are three on water works standards, one on depreciation and one on uniform accounts and reports. The latter committee, in conjunction with other associations and working jointly with the U. S. Census Bureau, has devised a detailed scheme of uniform water works accounts, which was adopted by the association this year.

The papers presented included a number on water purification, several on the detection and prevention of water waste, one on the organization of the water department of New York City, one on purchasing water works supplies and one on the broad general subject of efficient management.

The question box topics which elicited the most discussion were depreciation and water stealing. The importance of making water rates high enough to provide an ample depreciation fund was emphasized and it was urged that this should be done by municipal as well as private plants. Municipally-owned plants generally make no allowance for depreciation and when they do charge off depreciation it is generally only a bookkeeping entry, involving no actual funds. One of the speakers aptly remarked that "writing depreciation on a piece of paper and waving the paper in the air" is not providing for depreciation.

The discussion on water stealing arose, as it does at every water works convention, when the question of charging for water supplied to private fire connections for sprinkler service in mills and factories came up. The manufacturers and the fire insurance interests make strenuous demands for free private fire service — from municipally-owned water works. A huge volume of experience shows beyond dispute that where these fire services are not metered and the water paid for, the water is used surreptitiously for manufacturing purposes, often to the value of thousands of dollars a year from each fire service. The consensus of opinion among water works officials is that the only way to prevent this stealing is to charge for all water used. If the water is used for fire protection only, the amount to be paid will be small.

The next meeting of the association will be at Minneapolis in 1913. Dow R. Gwinn, of Terre Haute, Ind., was elected president of the association for the ensuing year, and John M. Diven, 47 State Street, Troy, N. Y., was reëlected as secretary and treasurer.

M. N. Baker.

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The American Institute of Criminal Law and Criminology, held three days' sessions in Milwaukee, August 29–31, giving careful attention to advanced ideas in the various branches of penology. The opening address of the president, Chief Justice Winslow, of the Wisconsin supreme court, gave the keynote to the whole. Among the principles which he declared necessary for proper treatment of the criminal code were these: It should be simple and easily understood; should provide for prosecution of crimes by information, leaving indictment by grand jury, if at all, optional with the trial court; trial court to have plenary power to amend indictments, informations, etc.; power to trial court to discriminate between confirmed criminals and those who give hope of reform; segregation of confirmed criminals; suspension of sentence, probation, and parole for first offenders; medical and psychological examination of the young and psychological examination of youthful offenders where deemed proper; juvenile courts; segregation "or some other efficient means" to prevent degenerates and imbeciles from returning to society; indeterminate sentences; provision for rehabilitation of character; limitation of right of appeal except in capital cases; judgments not to be set aside for errors except such as cause a miscarriage of justice.

These reforms, to be applicable in particular cases, were such as he believed necessary to place criminal law upon a more satisfactory plane. Substantially these were the propositions discussed more fully by writers and speakers and they were very generally seen to be the sense of the best thinkers in the organization.

A feature of the sessions that won many expressions of approval was an address by Judge A. C. Backus, of the Milwaukee municipal court, narrating his experience in placing first offenders and, at times, others, on probation. According to the system prevailing in Milwaukee, probation is within the discretion of the court, and at times persons on probation had even been permitted to leave the state, continuing to report. The court is aided in this matter by regularly appointed probation officers. Judge Backus was able to say that 97 per cent of the cases he had thus put out on probation had turned out well, and he read several letters from probationers that bore him out in this statement and that drew tears from the eyes of many in the audience.

Frederic Cook Morehouse.

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American Civic Association. — The eighth annual convention will be held at Baltimore, Maryland, November 19 to 22, with headquarters at the Hotel Belvedere. The Association goes to Baltimore this year on the invitation of the Woman's Civic League and other allied civic bodies of Maryland. The program now in preparation will be distinctive, as have been the programs of the American Civic Association since its organization. The several activities of the association will be treated in special sessions, with particular attention to city planning, national and state parks, street illumination, the smoke and billboard nuisances, and the house fly. In the city planning sessions it is proposed at this convention to direct the principal addresses and discussion towards the solution of the problems that confront the small city and town, rather than the large centers. This will be in response to a growing desire for information which comes to the association from the smaller class of city. An important session which was given its first test, very sucessfully at Washington a year ago, known as the "Experience Meeting," will be repeated at the Baltimore Convention, at which there will be a series of five-minute talks full of suggestion for effective "community improvement" by men and women who have had a part in "things that have happened" of special note during the past year. J. Horace McFarland, Harrisburg, Pennsylvania, is president and Richard B. Watrous, Union Trust Building, Washington, D. C., is secretary.

Addresses of Dr. L. G. Powers.—Among the National Municipal League workers in the east who attended the convention in Los Angeles was Dr. L. G. Powers, chief statistician of the bureau of the census, Washington, D. C. In addition to attending the convention and reading his paper on "Accounting for Revenue," Dr. Powers gave considerable attention while on the Pacific Coast to a study of municipal conditions in California, Washington and Oregon. During his visit he was in great demand as a speaker before local clubs interested in municipal affairs, but was unable to stay long enough on the coast to accept all the invitations that were extended to him. He, however, spoke before the Sierra Madre Club, of Los Angeles, the Commonwealth Club, of San Francisco, the Municipal League of Seattle, Taxpayers' Association of Seattle, and the Commercial Club of Tacoma, as well as the Commercial Club of Minneapolis.

In all his addresses Dr. Powers spoke in a vein of optimism concerning the cities as the future home of a growing democracy. He called attention to the fact that in the past hundred years of our governmental history great progress has been made in securing honesty in the administration of finances, and that the losses by defalcation and kindred causes, which were quite considerable in the early days of the government, have been reduced with the passage of time until they are now only a small fraction of 1 per cent. Governments, he pointed out, whether national, state, or municipal, are now engaged upon a different problem from that which was a principal one in the administrations of the past. We are engaged in securing economy and efficiency in administration. At the present time the wastes from inefficient administration are vastly greater than those from dishonesty, and how to lessen this waste and loss is a great and pressing problem. In the solution of this problem the adoption of good systems of accounting including the uniform system for which the National Municipal League has become the proponent, came in for considerable attention. The uses of good accounts in securing efficiency and economy of administration were pointed out with a great many illustrations.

In a number of these talks, especially that in San Francisco, Dr. Powers called attention to the relation of municipal debt to the possibilities of future city development. He especially called attention to the fact that San Francisco before the earthquake and fire had no debt, and by reason of that fact was able to re-establish itself as a great commercial center, fully equipped as a city for doing business, without any material delay and without any financial embarrassment. This rapid rise of San Francisco could not have taken place had the city been burdened with the average amount of debt of other cities of the country of the same size. With this and many other illustrations the Doctor emphasized the desirability of cities' limiting the amount of their indebtedness as much as possible, and throwing as few burdens upon the future as is consistent with good city government at the present time.

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Pennsylvania League of Third Class Cities in Convention.—The thirteenth annual convention of the League of Third Class Cities of Pennsylvania met in Wilkesbarre, August 27, 28 and 29. The one hundred and fifty delegates entered into the discussions of the sessions, dealing with the present form of municipal government of third class cities, municipal legislation needed in the state, the extension of the police power of third class cities, and the elimination of grade crossings. The most important subject, however, that came up for discussion before the convention was the question of the proposed change to a commission form of government. City Solicitor D. S. Seitz, of Harrisburg, made a strong plea in favor of the present form of government under which cities of the third class of the state are operating. This form, adopted thirty-seven years ago, is based on the bicameral council plan, executive work being carried out by a mayor and heads of departments. F. H. Belin, president of Scranton councils, a second class city of the state, won hearty applause by his address on "Scranton's Experience with the Commission Form of Government." Although taking this title for the subject of his address, Mr. Belin explained:

> Scranton's experience with the commission form of government is misleading, for we are not living under such a form. The impression is widespread throughout the state of Pennsylvania that the last legislature gave to Pittsburgh and Scranton, the two cities of the second class, a government by commission. We not only did not get it, but we did not even ask for it. Our city's government today is really only a modification of our old government, the difference being: First, there is one body of five councilmen, instead of two bodies of sixty-two; second, these councilmen are elected at large, instead of from twenty-two wards of the city; third, the councilmen are paid a salary of $2000 each per annum, instead of serving gratis; fourth, heads of departments, after due notice and hearing, may be removed by resolution of council. These differences do not constitute a commission form of government as you can readily see, but they have certainly brought about a great improvement in the legislative end of our city's business.

After a lengthy discussion of the subject, the delegates decided in favor of the single councilmanic body. The League elected for the ensuing year Mayor W. J. Stern, of Erie, president; and Frederick H. Gates, secretary.

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Indiana Municipal League Convention.—At the twenty-second annual convention of the Municipal League of Indiana convened in Hartford City, July 9, for a three days' session, the chief attention of the delegates was given to "The Building of a City," "How Should School Trustees be Elected and What Power Should They Have," "The Lighting of a City," and "Industrial Education."

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The Wisconsin League of Municipalities met at Wausau, July 23 to 24, in its fourteenth annual convention. F. R. Crumpton of Superior was elected president, and Ford F. MacGregor of Madison was reëlected secretary.

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Michigan.—At the recent meeting of the Michigan League of Municipalities the recommendation was made that a state bureau of information to supply information on municipal topics should be established.

V. ACADEMIC AND EDUCATIONAL

New York City Permanent Municipal Museum.—Several months ago the authorities appropriated $60,000 for remodelling the old building of the College of the City of New York, at the corner of 23d Street and Lexington Avenue, with the understanding that the trustees of the college would set aside space for a permanent municipal budget exhibit. Drawing inspiration from the possibilities of such a practical laboratory of municipal administrative work, the college planned to modify, develop and systematize its present courses in municipal chemistry, municipal sanitation, school management and administration, political science, politics and sociology until New York should have a school fitted to prepare citizens for capable service to the city in the various departments. The enthusiasm aroused by the movement is manifested by the chamber of commerce, which has decided to father a proposal to raise $500,000 to build a seven-story building, provided the city will develop and carry out a series of carefully devised courses to fit young men for the higher and more specialized positions of the municipal world.

National Municipal League High School Prizes.—Through the generosity of Mrs. Charles Richardson, wife of one of the vice-presidents of the League, the National Municipal League was able to establish in 1910 a prize for the best essay by a high school student upon a municipal subject. In the first competition, the subject of which was "The Municipal Problem in America," fifty-two essays were submitted; the first prize was awarded to Miss Lois Cleveland Gould of Sioux City, and the second to Gilbert V. Seldes, of the Boys Central High School of Philadelphia. By the generous coöperation of prominent women identified with the work of the League, the prizes were continued for the years 1911 and 1912. Eighty-nine essays were submitted for the second of the series on the "Immigrants in my City" in 1911. The first prize was awarded to Philip Wager Lowry, of Erie, Pa., and the second to Miss Flora Harrington, of Kansas City. Eighty-one essays were submitted in 1912 on "Street Cleaning in my City." The first prize was awarded to Miss Louise N. Lambert, of Baltimore, and the second to Miss Dorothy Aukerman of Altoona, Pa.

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Chicago School Children Show Interest in City Planning.—Managing Director Moody of the Chicago plan commission, aroused great interest among the high school students of the city by a series of lectures on the plans of the commission for the development of the city. One of the high schools uniquely devoted its graduation day to city planning, entering into a discussion of "Early Chicago," "Why Chicago is Planless," "A Plan for Chicago," "The Transportation Problem of Chicago," "A Civic Center for Chicago" and other phases of the subject, and showed that the children had studied the city plan carefully and had laid foundations for the future.

Rochester City Plan.—In December, 1911, the Rochester civic improvement committee, of which James G. Cutler is chairman and Charles Mulford Robinson, secretary, appropriated $210 for a series of prizes to be offered through the chamber of commerce to the boys and girls of the high schools for the best essay on "A City Plan for Rochester." Between two and three thousand essays were written and the committee felt justified in assuming that a very widespread public interest in city planning had been created.

In June, 1912, the committee, following much preliminary agitation and discussion, introduced ordinances into the council for the creation of a new thoroughfare which should parallel Main Street and lead to a large tract to be acquired for a civic center. The new street will cost not less than $2,000,000. The administration is now making itself responsible for the project.

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The Chattanooga Municipal Record is a carefully printed, well illustrated account of municipal affairs in that enterprising city. It is in its second volume.

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The Civic Courier, of the Baltimore Women's League, is a well of civic inspiration, and is evidence of the work which the League is doing to promote civic affairs in Baltimore. It seems especially aggressive at the present time toward eliminating the smoke nuisance, improper refuse disposal, impure milk, dirty streets and is busy encouraging home gardening among the poorer citizens having neglected backyards.

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Louise Klein Miller has become a potent force in welfare work in Cleveland. Beginning her efforts in a "garden club" in one of the most congested and immoral downtown districts of the city, her work has expanded into the Home Gardening Association and the Department of School Gardening, which report that last year 30,000 "home gardens" were established by the assistance of the Association and the Department, which, put in another way, means that 30,000 backyards were cleaned up and made places of cleanliness and brightness.

VI. JUDICIAL DECISIONS

Validity of Municipal Regulations.—In the exercise of a statutory power to license, regulate, and restrain places of amusement, a municipal ordinance prohibited moving picture shows within certain limits. The ordinance was enforced against a show which had been operating within the district, under license from the city granted prior to the passage of the ordinance (*Dreyfus v. Montgomery* (Ga.), 58 So. Rep. 730). The court remarks that the proprietor had devoted his property to a use in which the public had an interest, thereby granting the public an interest in that use and he must therefore submit to be controlled in that use by the public through its duly constituted authorities for the common good. It is further held, necessarily, that the license was only a revocable privilege and contained no element of a contract. On this point different facts, e.g., that the license was granted for a definite period, might easily give rise to a different rule.

Those who have begun to feel that pretty much everything that had been done at the time our constitutions were adopted had become a vested right in perpetuity, may take heart of grace from the experience of Tacoma, Washington, which has legislated successfully (as far as constitutional objections are concerned) against the practice of treating in saloons. The objection was duly and solemnly made by eminent counsel that the sacred rights of a free people were invaded by the by-law, that the thirsty and friendly citizen who could not set 'em up, but under pain of fine and durance, was deprived of property without due process of law and denied the equal protection of the laws guaranteed him by the reliable and ever present fourteenth amendment to the Federal Constitution, and that the power of the city to regulate the selling of liquor did not extend to any such grim and inhospitable restriction. The court gave due and serious consideration to these objections and over-ruled them all (*Tacoma v. Keisel*, 124 Pac. 137).

The irrepressible conflict between the welfare of the one and the many finds its examples abroad as well as at home. A quaintly reported case before the master of the rolls and the lords justices (*Holden v. Dalton-in-Furness Urban District Council*, May 3, 1912), relates the unhapply case of a small farmer near to whose farm the district council had made a "tip" (U. S.: garbage dump) where they brought fifty tons or so a month. "At first they kindly sent on to this farm pieces of oil cloth, which the cows ate. That was complained of and moderate compensation made. Then they thought to cure the blowing of this stuff on to the farm by burning it, and they favored their neighbors by burning fires, three heaps a day." There is no evidence that the farmer complained of any personal inconvenience but three horses died, he alleged, from eating hay made poisonous by soot and dust from the fires. The vice-chancellor gave the farmer damages but the court reversed the judgment, largely on the ground that the plaintiff had failed, by resort to chemical analysis or otherwise, to show that the contamination to the hay came from the burning refuse or that the "black mud" found by a veterinary in the animals' stomachs was from a like source. One of the judges expressed his sympathy with the farmer but another sagely remarked that some sympathy ought to be extended to a district council which had to get rid of all that house refuse without doing injury to their neighbors. If they had no way but to pile it up and burn it in the open they certainly need sympathy, and the neighbors too! The great weight the court gives to the failure of the plaintiff to present exact chemical or bacteriological evidence of the substances which had spoiled the hay is also worthy of note.

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Charters.—In *State ex rel. v. Mankato,* 136 N. W. Rep. 264, the supreme court of Minnesota holds the statute of that state authorizing cities and villages to adopt the commission form of city government to be valid. It was contended to the contrary that the provision of the constitution requiring home rule charters to provide for "a mayor or chief magistrate and a legislative body of either one or two houses" meant an executive official clothed with executive power only, and that the reference to a legislative body meant a body of officials endowed with legislative powers only, and that a charter which gave the legislative body both executive and legislative powers and included the chief magistrate of the city in its membership was contrary to this provision. The court, referring to familiar principles of constitutional construction, forcibly says that the question is not whether the people in adopting the state constitution had in mind any such city charter as that under consideration and were endeavoring to make anticipatory provisions for it, but whether, having in mind the possibility of some future attempt thus to intermingle the functions of the executive and legislative departments of municipal government they were attempting in advance to frustrate any such attempt. They point out that the history of legislation on the matter in the state indicates the contrary, the mayor having in many legislative charters been made a member of the council. They might well enough have gone further and shown that a legislative power, namely, the veto, is given to practically all chief executives in city or state as well as in the nation at large, and that every legislative body, certainly every city council, exercises some powers, such as those of appointment, of expenditure, of administrative detail, which in any scientific analysis are executive.

The relator urged further that article 3 of the constitution providing that the powers of government should be divided into three distinct classes, executive, legislative, and judicial, and that no person belonging to one of these departments shall exercise any of the powers belonging to another, prohibited the adoption of the commission form. This provision the court holds applies only to the higher governmental authorities and not to municipalities. The decision is in accord with a considerable number of others which have considered like objections made under other state constitutions.

In *Gallup v. City of Saginaw,* 135 N. W. Rep. 1060, the supreme court of Michigan affirms previous decisions holding that under the new system for enacting municipal charters provided in the recent constitutional amendments, a general revision must precede any piecemeal amendment of a city charter and that laws providing for the latter method are unconstitutional. The court further holds that the act applies to cities previously incorporated, against the rather recondite objection that such cities could not repeal their own charters, the legislature having still reserved to itself the power of incorporation, as distinguished from the power merely to make or propose a new charter. The view taken by the court gives the act a reasonable effect and operation while the construction contended for would have practically nullified it. The Michigan system appears to be a fruitful source of litigation, but all changes from the usual order have to be submitted to the Pauline rule, "Prove all things, hold fast that which is good."

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Duration of Municipal Franchises.—In *Salina Water Works v. Salina*, 195 Fed. Rep. 142, an ordinance granting to a waterworks company a franchise to supply the city with water for a period of twenty years, and containing further provisions by which the city reserved to itself the right to purchase and take over the plant at the end of twenty years, and extending the franchise for another twenty years if it did not do so, was held good against the objection that the extension provided for in the latter clauses was void as opposed to the terms of the grant and the city was held bound by the agreement during the second twenty year period, subject to the right of the city to take over the plant at any time.

A much more important, and from the standpoint of the public much more unfortunate decision on the duration of public service franchises, was rendered by the supreme court of the United States in *Louisville v. Cumberland Telephone Company*, 32 S. C. Rep. 572. In that case it appeared that in 1886 the legislature of Kentucky had chartered a telephone company, fixing no limit to its corporate existence and empowering it among other things to construct, equip, and maintain telephone systems and exchanges and operate its lines on any street or alley in the city of Louisville with the consent of the general council of that city. The council, by ordinance reciting the charter, ratified it and granted to the company the right to maintain its system in the city on substantially the same terms. Subsequently the rights of the original holder of the franchise passed to the plaintiff in the case. In 1909, a controversy having arisen between the city and the latter company concerning rates and service, the city repealed the ordinance under which the original company had constructed and maintained its system. The court, by Mr. Justice Lamar, holds that the franchise granted by the state without limit of time was perpetual, that the right reserved to the city to grant its assent did not authorize a withdrawal of the assent once given, and that injunction against the enforcement of the ordinance was properly granted.

Many students of this matter had hoped that in the development of the law to make it "correspond" (as Mr. Justice Holmes says it does) "on the whole with what is thought convenient," indeterminate franchises might ultimately be held either terminable at the will of the sovereignty, or beyond its power to give, and not, as the court here declares, a grant in fee. A grant by the legislature is obviously not as amenable to such a limitation as one by the municipality.

But there remains to the public the power of regulation, which is capable, in wise and just hands, of affording in most cases necessary relief from mismanagement of public service. And at any rate we can be the more cautious to limit the duration of any grants in the as yet unwasted future.

◆

Minimum Wage on City Work.—In the case of *Mallette v. Spokane*, 123 Pac. Rep. 1003, the supreme court of Washington considered the right of the city to fix a minimum wage, unreasonably higher than the going wage, for work done under a special assessment. The ordinance in question provided that no common laborer doing work for the city of Spokane, or for any contractor with the city, should receive less than $3 per day of eight hours. A contractor improved a street which was paid for by assessment upon the property benefited, paying for his labor as required by the ordinance, when it appeared that the going wages for labor of that character were from $1.85 to $2.25 per day of ten hours. One of the property owners objected and the court held the ordinance void, on the ground that the city, acting as agent of the property owner, could not compel him to pay a price greatly in excess of the reasonable cost, for the benefit of other individuals, the duty of the municipality being to secure for the property owners the best price obtainable under free competition. The court expressly re-affirms the decisions (especially *Atkin v. Kansas*, 191 U. S. 207, 24 Sup. Ct. Rep. 124) upholding the right of the state or municipality to limit the number of hours which shall constitute a day's work on public improvements. It is also careful to declare that it does not pass upon the power of the legislature to prescribe a policy which would compel the payment of an arbitrary wage in excess of the market price of labor, but merely holds that a city council, in the absence of any such public policy prescribed by law, cannot compel the property owner to pay more for work which is required to be let by free competition than the reasonable cost of private work done in the same way. The power of the city to fix a minimum wage as low as the going wages is not affected by the decision.

Economists agree with the court in holding that payment of wages to laborers on public work materially higher than what workers of the like class can obtain elsewhere is unsound in principle and vicious in consequences. Establishment of a minimum wage is another and much larger question.

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Liability of Cities for Delay.—An interesting and important doctrine of municipal corporation law was applied in *J. W. Turner Imp. Co. v. Des Moines* (Supreme Court of Iowa), 136 N. W. Rep. 656.

It is commonly provided in city charters that the contractor who does street improvement shall look only to the fund created by local assessment for his pay. It is the duty of the city to levy the assessment, but nothing is more common than a failure of exact compliance with the letter of the law in some of the particulars which the courts are wont to hold essential to the creation of a lien on the taxpayer's property. In such a case there is no fund created for the contractor to look to, and his right to recover under the contract fails entirely. But here the courts, by one of the bold strokes of reason and justice which are the glory of the common law—when they happen—impose upon the city an obligation not found in the contract, seemingly contradicted by it in fact, but inferred from the duty of making the assessment, and require it to pay the contractor the amount due him on failure to perform the duty of levying a valid assessment. The leading case on the point is perhaps an Oregon decision, *Commercial National Bank v. Portland*, 24 Or. 188; 33 Pac. Rep. 532, although a New York case, 112 N. Y. 42, is earlier. The decision noted here adds to the obligation of the city that of paying interest on the assessements in case of unreasonable and negligent delay in levying them. The possible development of this doctrine might be of the first importance in the nearly lost art of making legal rules subserve the purpose of increasing public and private efficiency and responsibility.

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Delegation of Powers.—An attempt to delegate to the mayor the power to fix the amount of the license exacted of a circus, which power was conferred upon the mayor and council, was held void in *Cannon v. Mayor* (Ga.), 74 S. E. Rep. 701. The power to fix the amount of a license fee is held to be tantamount to the power to tax, and to be "nondelegable."

Richard W. Montague.[1]

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[1] Of the Portland (Ore.) Bar.

VII. SOCIAL AND MISCELLANEOUS

The New York Committee of Fourteen.—The New York Committee of Fourteen, organized in 1905 and incorporated in 1907, is an association of private citizens for the purpose of investigating the operation of the excise law, particularly in Manhattan and the Bronx, suggesting improvements in the law, and increasing the efficiency of its administration. On the basis of its investigations, a large number of the worst dives and resorts have been closed and a far stricter enforcement of the law has been obtained in the granting of licenses to objectionable places. The work of the committee is endorsed by the surety companies which write excise bonds and the brewers of the city associated in the Brewers' Board of Trade.

A new situation was created in 1911 by the victory of the Democratic party in the election of the preceding year. The New York excise law, passed in 1896, removed the licensing authority from local officers and created a state department. This law was passed by the Republican party and the excise department was constantly in the control of that party until April, 1911, when, on the expiration of the five-year term of the commissioner, Governor Dix appointed Mr. Farley, a young up-state lawyer, to the office. Although Commissioner Farley was understood to have been in good standing with Charles F. Murphy, of Tammany Hall, he at once impressed all persons interested in the excise law with the sincerity of his expressed desire to conduct his department efficiently. However, legitimate patronage troubles came upon him thick and fast. He found in his department a number of "political," as well as military, veterans who were being taken care of in the service of the state; and he was at once besieged by a horde of hungry office seekers. It is commonly understood that Republican politicians did everything they possibly could to hamper Mr. Farley in the difficult work which he had undertaken.

In 1911 the Democrats also controlled the legislature for the first time since 1894. In all the intervening years Democratic leaders had been making promises to the saloon keepers. With the opening of the session, there was a flood of bills to remove practically all the penalties for Sunday sales and other minor offenses from the law. The principles of the law were not touched but the teeth were all to be pulled from the penalties. Some of these penalties sound drastic if considered by themselves, but when considered as part of the whole law, they are not too severe. No one is vested with discretionary power to grant or refuse a license. An application "correct upon its face" must be granted and then after the man is given possession and has the famous nine points of the law, the department may move against him for a material false statement or upon evidence of violations. Surely if then proved an improper licensee, the penalties should be severe. Likewise the law intended that the licensee should be a man of some financial standing but through competition between the breweries, it has come to pass that it requires but little more cash to open a saloon than to stock a push-cart. Fortunately that day is passing, for a license has come to have some value through the adoption in 1910 of a limitation of certificates to a ratio of 1 to 750 of the population. In Manhattan the ratio was 1 to 460 at the time of passage. A certificate is now worth $600 in Manhattan, $1200 in Brooklyn and $1800 in the Bronx.

But these numerous bills introduced by the friends of the retail liquor dealers either did not get out of committee or died on the long route to enacted laws. The amendments passed dealt chiefly with details in connection with the limitation provisions as would be natural in a year after the adoption of such an important principle. Governor Dix signed one bill which Governor Hughes twice vetoed, a bill designed "to protect the saloon from a church or a school."

The Committee of Fourteen reports a most successful year for 1911. Never before have there been so many important criminal cases against disorderly resorts and so high a percentage of convictions with such heavy sentences. Of the seven cases in which indictments were found by the "Rockefeller Grand Jury," there were five convictions before petit juries, one acquittal and one defendant pleaded guilty after turning state's evidence. All got sentences which were heavy for disorderly house cases, six months or a year and $500. The committee was also successful in indicting the proprietors of two of the most active disorderly hotels in the Tenderloin but to the great disappointment of the committee, by a series of unfortunate happenings, the men who directly profited from vice, escaped with light penalties after pleading guilty before Judge McCall.

As for the coöperation of the committee with the brewers, a most interesting situation developed. It was unable to meet their wishes in an important particular and as a result they felt unable to coöperate as a committee of their board of trade. The surety company officials who knew more intimately the situation, promised coöperation and their assistance is inducing the brewers to do individually what their committee had declined to do. The result far exceeded the expectations of the committee, being in many respects better than in any preceding year. Every brewer but one coöperated and even that case was managed indirectly. The same is also true of Brooklyn to which borough the work of the committee was extended. It has more so-called probationary cases and has more promises guaranteed in writing by the brewers than ever before.

Of the general excise situation (Sunday selling) there seems little complaint. The saloons are all open and selling in the rear room on Sunday. The mayor talks about there being hotels but there are only 700 hotels all told and 4500 saloons. Apparently the police are not getting any graft from the saloon keepers except here and there where from force of custom the proprietor wants to pay to feel that he is protected but he does not have to do so.

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St. Louis Vice Commission.—A joint committee on public morals has been organized in St. Louis to formulate a constructive policy in relation to social evils and public morals. It will be conducted along lines similar to the Chicago vice commission and is representative of a long list of prominent organizations. The chairman is the Rev. Dr. M. H. Lichliter, a Methodist clergyman. The vice-chairman is Anthony Matre, national secretary of the Federation of Roman Catholic Societies.

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Chicago's Bureau of Information and Publicity.—On January 22 of the present year the city council of Chicago passed an ordinance establishing a bureau of information and publicity in the executive department of the municipal government. It provides for an official staff embracing a "commissioner of information and publicity, a chief statistician and such investigators, assistants and employees as may be provided by ordinance of the city council."

The purpose of the new bureau is to provide, arrange and render available, chiefly for the use of the members of the city council, information, public reports and data bearing upon the legislative projects before them. While much has been expected of the city council in Chicago and elsewhere, comparatively little has been done to make possible intelligent legislation. Our local bureau of statistics has done considerable work of this character, but it has not been adequately equipped for the duties imposed upon it. It will, however, serve as a valuable nucleus for the new bureau.

Under the terms of the ordinance it will be the duty of the bureau to secure such laws and ordinances of other cities or states as bear upon the questions before the city council and analyze, index and prepare this material so that it may be readily available. It will also collect and analyze the judicial interpretation of such laws so that their application by the courts can be thoroughly understood, and investigate and gather all available information and data regarding any matter which is the subject of proposed litigation by Chicago. In addition, there will be compiled all obtainable data regarding the practical operation of legislative and administrative policies in other cities. It has been said that every ordinance or law is an experiment in social policy, and it means little to know that either has been enacted or to know how it has been interpreted, unless we also know how it has operated. For this purpose it will be within the province of the new bureau to "accumulate all public data possible in relation to the practical operation and effect of any such laws," and to make available for the use of the council committees or the council as a body, the carefully collected and sifted reports of official bodies, books, magazines, pamphlets, newspaper clippings and other sources of municipal information, and when, as frequently happens, all these agencies fail or prove unsatisfactory, supplement the same by correspondence with experts or others in a position to judge of the merits of the particular institution or ordinance under investigation.

A further function provided for in the ordinance will be the gathering of material of a local character bearing on our local questions, and of collecting, compiling and publishing information relating to all branches of the municipal government. All reports printed or published by the city of Chicago, or any of its departments or bureaus shall be kept on file and preserved as well as statistics and information concerning public service corporations operating under grants from the city or other municipalities, including the ordinances and statutes under which such public service corporations operate. The salary of the commissioner of information and publicity is fixed at the sum of $5000 per annum.

Thanks to the vigorous and hearty coöperation of the members of the city council and especially of Mayor Harrison the new bureau was saved from the malign influence of the spoilsman and all positions from that of commissioner down, have been placed under the merit system and will be filled in accordance with the tests prescribed by the civil service law.

Assurance is thus given that the bureau will, in consequence, become a splendid scientific laboratory of facts and information, whose employees will be skilled workmen and presumably men best fitted for the work required.

Frederic Rex.[1]

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The Newport Survey.—During the month of July of last year the Civic League of Newport, Rhode Island, found its municipal system of street cleaning and garbage removal so inadequate as to warrant an investigation. The Rhode Island Bureau of Social Research was therefore engaged to make a thorough inquiry into existing conditions. The immediate improvements which resulted from this investigation, especially with regard to the garbage removal and disposal led to the consideration of other problems and the same bureau was engaged by a committee representing six different welfare agencies to make a survey of the city. The problems of unemployment, health, coöperation of charities, education and particularly the problems of prostitution, gambling and the liquor traffic were to be considered in the body of the survey. In the course of the investigation, which lasted over five months, a large amount of material has been accumulated which is being used in connection with various improvements and changes that are being proposed by the investigating committee with the advice and assistance of Dr. Carol Aronovici, the director of the bureau. The most concrete change that has so far taken place in the city, as a result of the survey, has been along the lines of improving the moral tone of the community. In accomplishing the task the governor of the state took action over the heads of the local authorities, as the latter proved not only incapable to cope with the situation, but displayed a tolerance which was the object of widespread criticism among Newport residents. So far the gambling houses, the liquor traffic and the houses of prostitution have been placed under control. The bureau has also been engaged for the next year to act as a vigilance agency and report conditions to the committee and to the local authorities whenever necessary.

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[1] Assistant City Statistician.

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Philadelphia Municipal Coöperative Stores.—The plan of Director Cooke of the department of public works of Philadelphia to establish municipal coöperative stores appears to have the support of the municipal employees and to be working toward a realization of the scheme. Tentative plans call for the location of municipal stores in different sections of the city within easy access of a large number of employees. Special buyers for the establishments will be charged with the duty of seeking in the open market for the best foodstuffs and provisions at the lowest cost. Just how the municipal stores are to be financed has not been decided. One suggestion provides that the employees subscribe for stock which will be redeemed as soon as the enterprise has been developed far enough to do so. Coöperative stores managed on this basis have proved successful in Europe.

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Chicago Street Signs.—The Chicago Association of Commerce believes that it has solved the problem of street signs. For residential districts it recommends a two-way blue enamel sign consisting of name plates 5 inches by 24 inches, with 4 inch letters, five coats of enamel, name plates mounted on heavy malleable iron protected by asphaltum paint, sign plates held in heavy copper frame protecting all edges of sign, and heavy cast iron base 30 inches high with stem of 2-inch gas pipe 6 feet in height, the whole protected by asphaltum paint. For business districts, it sanctions the signs in use in London, which consist of a white opalized glass plate ½ inch thick and 6 by 30 inches in size mounted in a frame work of heavy zinc and having a backing of one-eighth of an inch in Portland cement concrete. The letters are from 4 to 4½ inches in size, sand blasted into the plate and permanently vitrified by black enamel into the white glass. It is said that the latter can be read at 250 feet in a snowstorm.

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The People's Institute has just announced the organization of a municipal efficiency and reference bureau, under the direction of Dr. Frederic C. Howe, John Collier and Dr. Carol Aronovici.

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Eight Cities Want the 1913 Meeting of the National Municipal League: Minneapolis, Washington, Toronto, Indianapolis, St. Paul, Des Moines, Richmond, Ind., and New Haven, Conn. San Francisco and Oakland have sent in invitations for 1915.

PERSONALIA

Joseph L. Hudson, a member of the council of the National Municipal League since 1906, died at Worthing, near London, England, on July 5. Mr. Hudson was Detroit's leading merchant and a most versatile business man. He was easily the first philanthropist of the city and one of the most active civic workers. He was for years the president of the Municipal League, resigning only last spring. He was identified with all sorts and conditions of movements and was a liberal contributor to every forward effort in his city, state and nation. He was a quiet and modest attendant at the recent meetings of the League and at the meetings of the council. His death is a loss we shall long feel.

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Frederick L. Ford, formerly city engineer of Hartford, Conn., has been elected city engineer of New Haven.

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Dr. William Bennett Munro has been made professor of municipal government in Harvard University.

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Howard Strong, by a slip of the pen, was spoken of in our July issue as being secretary of the Cleveland Civic and Commerce Association, whereas he is the secretary of the Minneapolis body of that name. He was assistant secretary of the Cleveland chamber of which Munson Havens continues as secretary.

Chicago to Honor Burnham.—The suggestion to have all Chicago pay tribute of honor to Daniel H. Burnham, the distinguished municipal architect, by giving his name to the proposed lake front park, which was offered by Chairman Charles H. Wacker of the Chicago plan commission has been received with widespread enthusiasm.

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Carlton E. Davis, department engineer of the New York board of water supply, was appointed July 24 by Director Cooke of the Philadelphia department of public works as chief of the bureau of water at a salary of $7500. His experience and responsibilities in connection with the building of the great reservoir on Orange Mountain as an addition to the Newark water works, his municipal engineering work on the Isthmus, which included the complete installation of two water works supplying over 100,000 people, and the building of the Ashokan Dam, in the Catskill Mountains, have given him an unusually broad engineering training for a man of but forty-two years of age.

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Dr. Werner Hegemann of Berlin, the well known German city planning expert, is coming to America in the spring of 1913 under the auspices of the People's Institute, 50 Madison Avenue, New York.

BOOK REVIEWS

Proportional Representation: A Study in Methods of Election. By John H. Humphrey. London: Methuen and Company, 1911, pp. xxi. $4.00.

This volume is an opportune and authoritative contribution to the literature of a fundamental and democratic electoral reform, now attracting the earnest and favorable consideration of progressive legislators, especially in Europe. It is the first English or American work to present a general survey of the remarkable progress of proportional representation in recent years, and a comprehensive and concrete discussion of the reform in the light of its actual workings in the various countries that have adopted it. The entire book clearly reflects Mr. Humphrey's thorough mastery of his subject, his familiarity with the latest developments in his field the world over, and his exceptional qualifications to speak with authority, particularly with regard to the practical detailed operation of the new electoral machinery. He has been secretary of the Proportional Representation Society for some years, has organized and conducted a highly successful series of "enlarged illustrative elections," and has personally observed elections under the new system in Belgium, Sweden, and the Transvaal.

The work embraces a discussion of both the direct and indirect results of elections by majority or plurality vote whether by district or general ticket; of earlier forms of non-proportional representation of minorities by means of the limited, the cumulative, or the single vote; of the second ballot on the continent and the alternative, or preferential, vote in Australia as solutions of minority elections in three-cornered contests; of the different systems of proportional representation now in use in comparison with one another. The value of the volume is enhanced by the addition of a series of eleven appendices, aggregating 112 pages, on such topics, among others, as the single non-transferable vote in Japan, the proportional systems of Sweden and Finland, the second ballot in Germany, statistics of the general elections in the United Kingdom, 1885–1910.

The operation of the single-district system is critically analyzed and its direct results summarized as follows: (1) Often a gross exaggeration of the strength of the victorious party; (2) sometimes a complete disfranchisement of the minority; and (3) at other times a failure of the majority of citizens to obtain their due share of representation. Indirectly the system gives rise to false impressions of public opinion and consequent unstable legislation, unduly exalts party organization, and is largely responsible for the increasing degradation of party strife by making the result of the whole election hinge on a "final rally" of a handful of nondescript voters. The limited, the cumulative, and the single vote are shown to have accomplished their purpose of securing large minorities a share of representation, but to be non-proportional and lacking in the elasticity and adaptability characteristic of a true system of representation. While recognizing that the preferential vote "possesses many and valuable advantages as compared with the second ballot," the author holds that both are designed to "maintain the exclusive representation of the majority in each constituency" regardless of inequalities, and that "neither . . . can solve the problem of three parties seeking representation."

Proportional representation is urged by Mr. Humphreys as the only just and adequate solution of England's electoral problems, as the key not only to electoral but also constitutional and social reform. While preferring the single transferable vote system to the various list systems, he declares that results demonstrate the immeasurable superiority of the latter over ordinary electoral methods. The reasons given for his preference are that the single transferable vote is more elastic, adapts itself more freely to new political conditions, appeals with greater force to English-speaking peoples because based upon the direct representation of the electors, and has the stronger likelihood of becoming the common electoral method for the British Empire.

This work should prove very effective in advancing the proportional representation propaganda in Great Britain, for which it was primarily written. But its interest and value are by no means confined to Englishmen, nor to students of English politics, but extend to the United States with its similar electoral problems, and to all students of present-day political methods.

Leon E. Aylesworth.

THE INITIATIVE, REFERENDUM AND RECALL. Edited by William Bennett Munro. New York: D. Appleton and Company. $1.50.

This is one of the volumes of The National Muncipal League series. The material contained in its fifteen chapters is reprinted for the most part from the *Proceedings of the National Municipal League*, the *Atlantic Monthly*, the *Political Science Quarterly* and other recent sources. Only the introductory chapter by Professor Munro and two of the four chapters on the recall appear to have been written specially for this volume. As one would naturally expect, there is more or less repetition both of facts and arguments. This disadvantage, unavoidable in a book of this sort, is a minor drawback compared with its chief advantage—its discussion of these newer devices of democracy from varying points of view, which range all the way from partisan advocacy to equally partisan hostility. The introductory chapter and the article on "A Year of the People's Rule in Oregon" by Professor George H. Haynes deserve special mention as representing the viewpoint of the careful student of political science. Of more interest to the general public at the present time are the chapters on "Nationalism and Popular Rule" and "The Issues of Reform" by Colonel Theodore Roosevelt and Governor Woodrow Wilson.

One who reads this volume critically can hardly fail to see that the extremes of opinion concerning the initiative, referendum and recall are predicated upon different theories of government. The controversy is not a mere disagreement as to the means that should be employed, but really involves the question of the right of the majority to exercise effective political control. The most enthusiastic advocate of the initiative, referendum and recall recognizes the fact that experience will doubtless suggest may desirable modifications in these new tools of democracy. Much of the opposition to this so-called direct democracy, however, is really based on the belief that pure democracy, whatever its form, whether direct or representarive, is inherently bad. The progressive who believes that the compelling force behind the government should be the will of the majority, has little in common with the conservative who believes that governmental organization should be such as to impose effective checks upon the will of the majority. A volume such as this will render a distinct service, if it helps to bring about a clearer realization of the fact that the most important political question, now before the people of this country, is not whether we should have representative or direct democracy, but whether government should or should not reflect the will of the people.

The view-point of Senator Bourne who accepts as logical and necessary such changes in government as may be required to ensure an effective expression of public opinion in legislation, is in striking contrast to that of Congressman McCall whose distrust of these instruments of majority rule, reminds us of the eighteenth century conservative. Between these two extremes are others who are inclined to view with favor the introduction of the initiative, referendum and recall, but at the same time wish to preserve such check on public opinion as now exists in the power of the courts to declare laws null and void. This is clearly the view of both Professor Munro and Governor Wilson, though the latter is more pronounced than the former in his belief that the initiative and referendum will make legislative bodies more truly representative. Both, however, refuse to recognize the obvious fact that courts in this country are lawmakers and see no reason why they should be subjected to popular control through the recall. With this power in the hands of judges not subject to popular control, it is difficult to see how a legislative body can be in any true sense responsible, since responsibility necessarily implies the power to do that which the people demand. In this respect the moderate progressive, such as Governor Wilson, occupies common ground with the ultra-conservative.

An interesting and significent feature of this current discussion is the failure on the part of the opponents of the initiative and referendum to bring forward any plan for securing responsible representative government. Those who do not believe in direct democracy, but do believe in popular government of the representative type, would occupy a much stronger position, if they frankly recognized the fact that our constitutional system was not designed to secure responsibility and were willing to support such changes as would really bring the law making power under effective popular control.

J. Allen Smith.
University of Washington.

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The History of Local Rates in England. By Edwin Cannan, N. A., LL.D. London: P. S. King and Son. 3s. 6d. net.

Mr. Edwin Cannan, professor of political economy in the University of London, is the author of a brief *History of Local Rates in England.* For an American unfamiliar with English taxation it is necessary at the outset to define the meaning of the word "rates" as used in England. Our expression "local taxes" is almost the exact equivalent of the English term local rates. Professor Cannan uses the term tax to signify what we commonly call a special tax. He means by tax such an imposition as the uniform tax on mortgages and credits in Pennsylvania, or the one half per cent tax on the recording of mortgages in New York, or the 1 per cent tax on the operating property of railroads in Connecticut. An English tax then is a fixed rate upon certain property or business regardless of the product. A rate, on the other hand, is determined in accordance with the necessity for income, and is fixed as is the tax rate in the city of New York, by dividing the sum of money to be raised by the total taxable base.

English local rates, unlike our local taxes, are a percentage of income from the kind of property rated instead of a percentage of the capital value of the property rated.

While in the United States it is often difficult to determine by reading the statutes what may be the exact method of administering the law, nevertheless our taxing statutes generally describe in detail the character of property to be taxed and the mode of its assessment. The statutes governing English rates are what we would call ancient and very meagre. The difference in the English and the American point of view is well illustrated by Mr. Cannan's statement, that "the importance of local rates is not so ancient a matter as we might be tempted to expect on general consideration. I doubt if any very clear and important cases are likely to be found earlier than the *thirteenth century.*" Plenty of cases, however, he said existed in the middle of that century "the customs of Romney Marsh which then were at any rate old enough to be described as "ancient and approved" required certain services from the men of the marsh, which are marked by the distinguishing characteristics of a local rate." In 1250 a dispute occurred concerning who were bound to repair the sea walls. An ordinance was issued appointing twelve men to measure the walls and the land which was in danger, and then to apportion the duty of repairing the walls upon the owners of the land in proportion to the area of land owned. If any man neglected to repair his portion the bailiff might do the work and charge the delinquent with double the cost. This plan is very like an assessment for a local improvement as we now understand it, and is practically identical with the labor method of repairing roads in the country.

In the early days of rates it was persons and not things that were rated.

The accepted view was that each inhabitant should pay according to his ability or substance. Something in the nature of a valuation list sprang up to guide the assessors in determining the ability of the rate payers. Trouble arose in the case of non-resident owners of property, and it was decided that a non-resident was an inhabitant for the purpose of rating when he owned real property in the territory. A distinction was made between rates for ordinary expenses and the building of roads, sewers, and such improvements as obviously tended to enhance the value of neighboring land. In the middle of the sixteenth century Scarborough Pier was rebuilt, and the money was raised for the repair and subsequent maintenance by taking one-fifth of the rents receivable by all persons who owned lands lying within the town of Scarborough. The sum was collected from tenants, but tenants were allowed to deduct the amount from their rents. All contracts to the contrary, past, present and to come, were rendered void.

Mr. Cannan says that a distinction was made between a road through a town and the highway in the country. The town road was repaired by the owners, not the occupiers of the property abutting upon it. On the other hand a highway connecting two towns seems to have been a charge upon all of the property within the towns. Such distinctions are common in American provisions for assessments for local improvements. A highway deemed to be a benefit to an entire city is made a city charge.

The rates for the relief of the poor were to a large extent voluntary gifts by the people of the parish. Indeed, an act of Parliament of 1530 provided that the church wardens of every parish were to collect alms of the good Christian people within the same with boxes every Sunday for the relief of the poor. Moreover, they were directed to compel all "sturdy vagabonds" and "valiant beggars" to be kept to continual labor.

The rating system of the present time came as a slow development, both in respect of the property rated and the manner of rating. For a long time income was supposed to be taken into account in the rating of persons. Gradually, however, the rental value of the property occupied was generally adopted as a basis for estimating the relative ability of the ratepayers. Even down to the last century movable property was rated in some places, although "to rate value in respect of goods held merely for personal use, such as household furniture, was never usual, though like almost every conceivable thing in rating, it was occasionally done." We may take to heart what the author says: "Such articles would be regarded as a source of expense rather than of income and as therefore making owners less, rather than more able to contribute." Finally, in 1840 an effort was made to enforce the rating of stock-in-trade. The action was very unpopular and "the government promised a bill for exempting stock-in-trade. This was soon endorsed and passed first and second readings without discussion. On its going into committee, Mr. Goulburn uttered a feeble and somewhat obscure protest in the interest of tithe-owners. The attorney-general asked if he really thought "that it would be better to let the law remain as it was. If the right honourable gentleman thought so, he was the only man in the House or in the country who held that opinion . . . . It had been found utterly impossible that a rate on stock-in-trade could be so modelled as to be free from legal objections. . . . . In fact, the law had become quite odious, and except in a very few instances, no attempt had been made to enforce it." Then the bill made that law which was at present usage. The bill passed its third reading, but was then withdrawn because of technical errors. A substitute was passed which finally exempted stock-in-trade from being rated for poor relief. Rates for other purposes have been assimilated to the rate for the relief of the poor. The rates fall on immovable property in accordance with the rent actually paid for its use, or if occupied by the owner on what would be supposed to be the rent if it were rented to another. There are various discriminations particularly in favor of agricultural land.

We have a survival of this practice in Philadelphia, and had it in Pittsburgh until recently, when the gross injustice of taxing land valued at thousands of dollars only one-third as much land built upon in the immediate vicinity lead to the repeal of the discrimination, and a uniform tax rate throughout Pittsburgh.

For nearly a century a contest has been going on between the local ratepayer and the national taxpayer. The local ratepayer has striven to charge the general government with various expenses to bring about a reduction of rates. Mr. Cannan points out that someone must pay the bill and if the contest were for the reduction of local rates and the imposition of a particular tax to take the place of the rates the shifting would rarely take place.

Mr. Cannan likes English local rates, and points out what is quite true, that any system long adhered to results in a certain distribution of the burden upon the faith of which contracts are made and people do business. He opposes vigorously any shifting of the burden from houses to lands, and discusses the matter as though he had never heard of the ordinary American system of imposing local taxes on land at its capital value. He says that the value of the land is an untaxed value, but seems not to understand that a tax on land is not shifted, while a tax on a building certainly is. If the author could have a few minutes conversation with the owners of land in New York or Boston he would be ready to change his view very quickly.

To an American the sight of pasture land in the heart of an English city, paying taxes on the rent paid for the pasturage of a cow, when the land is greatly needed for commercial or residential purposes, is a sight which does not appear to disturb the author much as it does disturb a citizen of America.

Altogether Mr. Cannan's book is a valuable contribution. The history of how English rates for local purposes came to be what they are at the same time throws much light on how the local taxes in the United States came to be what we now have them.

Lawson Purdy.

New York.

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Smoke, A Study of Town Air. By Julius B. Cohen and Arthur G. Rushton. New York: Longmans, Green and Company. $1.40 net.

While American cities have only recently begun to realize the seriousness of the smoke nuisance wherever soft coal forms the chief fuel used for industrial purposes, England has long recognized the nuisance. As early as 1257, Eleanor, Queen of Henry III, is reported as having left Nottingham for Tulbury Castle in order to escape the smoke of the "sea coles"—as they were then called. Since 1889 Parliament has repeatedly directed its attention to the smoke problem and thrice appointed special commissions for its investigation. Not much was accomplished, however, toward the scientific study of the problem or toward the abatement of the nuisance until Sir William Richmond and his friends founded the Coal Smoke Abatement Society in 1899.

Since then considerable literature upon the subject has appeared, including numerous addresses prepared especially for the several anti-smoke conferences that have been held from time to time in Great Britain. Until the publication of this volume by Cohen and Rushton, however, there has been no authoritative general survey of the subject. Within the compass of 88 pages, many of which contain really helpful illustrations and diagrams, the authors—both of whom are members of the faculty of Leeds

University—have given a careful and reliable statement of those phases of the smoke problem that have been scientifically investigated. They have given the health question a subordinate place in Appendix A, which summarizes the statistical evidence collected on this subject by Dr. Ascher of Hamm, Westphalia. There are brief sections on: The composition of soot; the daily soot fall (in London and other English cities); the effect of soot on vegetation, on masonry, and on metal work; town fogs; and the dispersal of soot. This information relates of course mainly to British experience, and conditions in Great Britain differ from those that prevail in the United States because soft coal is the chief domestic fuel there, while in this country the smoke nuisance is mainly attributable to industrial establishments. The book certainly will help those interested in the abatement of the smoke nuisance to appeal with additional force and greater success, than has hitherto been the case, to the government and to the general public.

A fairly accurate estimate of the daily amount of soot fall in Leeds indicates that it is 335 tons per square mile per annum, or roughly one ton per day per square mile. In London, the average has been found to be about 259 tons per square mile per annum.

Soot contains varing amounts of tar, which adheres so tenaciously to everything that it is not even removed by rain. Mr. Harris, of Glasgow, estimated that in the city of Glasgow 25.7 tons of tarry matter are delivered into the air every day; on this basis the figures for Leeds would be 23 tons per day. It is the presence of this tar in the soot that is largely responsible for its disastrous effects on vegetation, illustrated by several experiments made in and near Leeds upon lettuce, radishes, evergreen and other plants.

Numerous experiments in the effect of smoke on sunlight are also reported, indicating that as much as 25 per cent of the total daylight is absorbed in the center of the industrial area of Leeds by its smoky atmosphere.

C. W. A. Veditz.

Washington, D. C.

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Efficiency in City Government. *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, vol. xli, whole no. 130, pp, 319, May, 1912.

Efficiency in city government, based upon a scientific study of conditions is of such recent origin that any literature devoted to this subject cannot but commend itself to the student of municipal affairs. This timely volume is all the more interesting because it contains, in the form of carefully prepared papers, contributions from thirty experts or officials, the majority of whom have had practical experience in some department, or bureau of research in a large city, county or state. These papers were collected and edited by Dr. Clyde L. King, associate editor of the *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*,and editor of the volume on *The Regulation of Municipal Utilities* in the National Municipal League series, and are grouped under four general heads:

The first deals with the need for efficiency in municipal government and contains a paper by Henry Bruère on "Efficiency in City Government" and another contribution is by Frederick A. Cleveland on "The Need for Coördinating the Municipal, State and National Activities." These two papers form a very good general introduction to the volume, are carefully prepared, and, while illustrated with facts, lay down fundamental principles applicable to any city.

Part two, headed "Efficiency Principles Applied," contains nineteen papers on efficiency in various departments such as accounting, budget, health, municipal labor, water and gas supply, charity public works, etc., the last paper being an account of "Efficient Administration under the Commission Plan" by the mayor of Trenton, New Jersey.

Part three deals with the work of bureaus of municipal research in New York, Philadelphia, Cincinnati and Milwaukee, the contributions being made by officials of the bureaus in these cities.

"Training for Municipal Efficiency" is the subject of part four and contains three papers: One by Prof. C. E. Merriam on "Investigation as a Means of Securing Administrative Efficiency" is an excellent account of the work of an aldermanic commission—for the creation of which Mr. Merriam was responsible and in which he served as chairman—appointed to investigate the expenditures of the city of Chicago. The second paper by U. L. Leonhauser on "A National Fund for Promoting Efficient Municipal Accounting and Reporting," briefly outlines the scope of the work prosecuted by means of the Metz Fund of New York; the third by Dr. W. H. Allen discusses the subject of "Training Men and Women for Public Service."

Limited space will not permit a discussion of the relative merits of the various papers comprising this volume. In general, however, it may be said that the need for greater efficiency in the management of almost every department in our cities is very evident. For example, Mr. Welton, in his paper on "The Problem of Securing Efficiency in Municipal Labor," says—and he writes from experience: "Except to the few who have made a study of the subject, the extent of municipal inefficiency is almost unbelievable" (p. 103). He shows that the "average efficiency of labor in any large municipality will not at the present time exceed 50 percent." This means a waste in the annual pay-roll of New York City of approximately $8, 500,000. Nor is the writer content with merely estimating the waste. Remedies are suggested and, fortunately, some of the cities have already adopted these remedies by actual tests in reorganizing departments on an efficiency basis with telling results. Thus, for example, in New York an experiment was made reorganizing a part of the maintenance force of the bureau of sewers which resulted in a net increase in efficiency of 275 per cent; and what is true of labor is true in other lines. This, a reading of the volume makes clear. It also makes clear that the entire problem of municipal efficiency can only be solved by a careful study of minute details, by patient effort along lines hitherto neglected, and above all, by an awakened public conscience supporting the efforts of reform. In the opinion of the writer the volume is a real contribution to the literature of municipal government. A good index adds much to the usefulness of the work.

KARL F. GEISER.

Oberlin College.

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THE HISTORY OF THE GOVERNMENT OF DENVER WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO ITS RELATIONS WITH PUBLIC SERVICE CORPORATIONS. By Clyde Lyndon King, Ph.D. Denver: The Fisher Book Company, 1911, 12 mo, pp. xvi, 322.

Every city that aspires to be great needs a body of local civic literature. The daily newspapers have so fully occupied the field of local interests that few people, apparently, have noticed the lack of a more intensive and permanent literary interpretation of the life of their particular city. True, we have the Pittsburgh Survey as a sort of industrial and social cross-section of a great urban community. We have, also, local histories, filled with curious anecdotes of the early days and with pictures of the leading citizens and the historic buildings. We have a composite book about Providence and Dr. Dodd's study of the administration of Washington. Then there is the literature of reports, from the city comptroller's list of vouchers to the report of the Chicago vice commission. All of these are valuable, unless it be the lists of vouchers. But, after all, one would naturally expect something more. Civic interests are so universal, so absolutely vital, so dependent upon the intelligent coöperation of the city electorate, that one is bound to look for the touch of a master-hand to crystallize into virile literature the life of a great city. Dr. King's *History of the Government of Denver* does not fully satisfy this expectancy, but it marks the beginnings of intelligent striving to make a city live in a book dealing with urban government.

Denver is an interesting city from many standpoints. It owns none of the great utilities. It is one of a few of the large cities that have not yet municipalized the water works. It is the mining capital, and, largely for that reason, has found the local public service corporations allied with another group of interests which have dominated the state of Colorado. Denver is interesting because it has Judge Lindsey and his juvenile court. It is equally interesting and almost as famous on account of the "queer" actions of the other courts which have been called on to pass upon its governmental and franchise matters. It has had woman suffrage longer than any other large city in the United States. It has, for about ten years, been living under a radical home rule constitutional amendment and a home-made charter. It has tried the referendum on franchises with the electorate limited to taxpayers and it has tried the initiative on franchises with the franchises drafted by the companies applying for them. It is one of the few American cities that have been consolidated with counties.

Dr. King's book is open to criticism from the fact that the most interesting parts of it seem to be hidden away. What a person looking into it casually will see is the bones. The meat is inside the skeleton. This fault is due, apparently, to a too close adhesion to the chronological order and to an overemphasis of the importance of structural details of government. It is impossible to make the *annals* of any city's charter development keenly interesting. The book recites many dramatic incidents in the city's history and makes many keen observations and interpretations. For example, Dr. King says that the city councils of 1889 and thereafter "became mere registries where the public utility companies recorded such franchises as seemed best to further their ends." The tale of party, legislative and judicial subserviency to the public service corporations told in this book reaffirms and emphasizes the fact, long since patent to every practical student of municipal problems, that a city cannot be free and stay free without having an effective mastery of its own streets. The general student would have been pleased if the author had seen fit to give more space to the practical workings of woman suffrage in Denver,and also to the juvenile court. Moreover, the author does not bring out, with any sort of emphasis, the distinction between a referendum to the taxpayers and a referendum to the entire electorate. But he recites in detail the city's charter development,the causes of the city's growth and the development of the various public utilities. His conclusions are strongly against the bicameral council and in favor of the commission form of government, the short ballot, home rule and the referendum. On the vexing problem of the relations between state and city in the regulation of public utilities, he is in favor of having both a state and a local commission, the latter to pass on franchises before they go to the people, to regulate rates, to require extensions and to compel good service.

Delos F. Wilcox.

Elmhurst, N. Y.

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The Record of a City. By Rev. George F. Kenngott. New York: The Macmillan Company.

This book is, as its sub-title states, a social survey of Lowell, Mass., written as a partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Ph.D. at Harvard in the department of social ethics. The book shows the results of an immense amount of painstaking research.

A short history of Lowell is followed by a study of population, housing, health, standards of living, industrial conditions, social and recreation features; and a chapter of conclusions. Excellent maps, many photographs and charts place vividly before the reader phases of life among the mill operatives. The author has gone at his task with the attention to details that is characteristic of the Germans. Any sociological student would get valuable information from the book.

The three most interesting chapters are, perhaps, those on housing, standards of living and industrial conditions. The ownership of property is traced through the period of corporation ownership to the present time when the mills have sold their houses to persons who have increased rents out of proportion to the ability of the laborer to pay them. Racial influences on the housing problem are carefully discussed. Real estate owners of Lowell cannot plead ignorance as an excuse for maintaining unsanitary dwellings. The solution of the problem of sanitary housing, the author says, lies in the building of small comfortable cottages.

In the chapter on standards of living the budgets of 287 families are shown in tabular form in comparisons between income and expenditures on the one hand, and the number of calories of heat produced by the food purchased on the other. There are classifications by races as well. Very few deductions are made from an immense amount of data, and the only attempt at constructive suggestions in closing this chapter is that a desire for something better should be created in the working man.

In the chapter on industrial conditions labor laws and environment, the prosperity of the mills and the averages of working men's wages are treated. The reader would be glad to know the ultimate sources of the statement as to what are the average weekly wages and upon what basis they are averaged. There is a table showing a marked increase in mill dividends since immigrants from the East have been available as operatives, but no deductions are drawn. The question arises whether or not the courtesy of the mill agents and his own professional point of view may not have limited the author's range of vision.

It is apparent that the writer has endeavored to treat both sides of the question fairly, but while he has obtained first hand information from the mill owners, he had apparently obtained the larger part of his information of the laborers through others. Although he does not lack sympathy with working men he seems to lack personal contact with them.

The reader would be glad if such a fine piece of detailed study could have been accompanied by more constructive suggestions for remedies where remedies are obviously needed.

Palliatives are suggested in plenty. The fundamental solution he gives is:

> "The universal solvent for the social and economic problems of the day is love and good-will. . . . . The only remedy for the inordinate lust of wealth, the transformation of men into mere hands," the exploitation of the unskilled and ignorant by the selfish and designing, is first to seek the Kingdom of God and His righteousness."

In the year of grace 1912, "love and goodwill" are not going to provide food and a home.

One wishes that the author had studied the joint relation of the particular problems of his subject with the related problems that deal for example with a more equitable division of the products of labor, with a lower tariff, with the artificial stimulation of immigration and lastly with the exemption from taxation of improvements on land.

In spite of this criticism, merely as a book descriptive of conditions, it is of very great value. The author has a vast fund of information and a keen insight into racial characteristics.

Reginald Mott Hull.
Cambridge, Mass.

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Valuation of Public Service Corporations. By Robert H. Whitten. New York: Banks Law Publishing Company, 1912.

In the days of the stage coach and the ferryboat, the fixing of a reasonable rate and the determining of reasonable service were not very difficult matters as every citizen of the community knew practically the exact valuation of the ferry or the stage coach and could tell with accuracy as to the cost of operation and maintenance. Now, however, such information does not exist. Not even the director of the corporation can give a reasonable estimate as to the value of the average public utility plant. To the promoter, stockholder and director, the basis for the valuation of such plants is not the income actually received but the income that may be received when a monopoly is obtained upon the life needs of a growing city. Valuation and cost of construction and operation have long since parted company.

Yet there can be no sane or adequate regulation that is not based upon accurate valuation. Since the epoch-making decisions of the supreme court in 1889 and 1898, asserting the rights of the courts to declare unconstitutional all laws fixing rates or standards of service unless those laws allowed a reasonable return on the "fair value" of the property, the basis and methods of valuation have become of first importance. This volume gives the principles that have been used in determining valuation.

The author gives excerpts, not only from all the leading cases in which the courts and administrative tribunals have squarely faced the question of valuation, but also from the unpublished reports of special masters in equity, from the reports of appraisal commissioners appointed by the courts, from the decisions of state railroad and public service commissions, and from reports of appraisers appointed by local authority. The quotations are full. Accompanying each is a terse yet complete statement of the salient facts necessary to an understanding of the case.

Says Dr. Whitten, paragraph 39, page 40:

> While, therefore, it is established that a public service corporation must as a general rule be allowed to charge a rate that will produce a fair return on the fair value of the property used in the service of the public, there is as yet no authoritative determination of what constitutes fair value. The entire subject is in a developmental stage. Various standards and combinations of standards are being used or advocated. The three fundamental standards are: (1) Market value as a going concern. (2) Cost of reproduction. (3) Actual cost. Usually whether acknowledged or not one of these three standards will be the controlling factor. The appraiser may consider all three factors and may claim to give them all equal weight, but in fact, perhaps unconsciously, use the other two factors merely to throw light on the third which is made the actual standard.

One of the most interesting facts brought out by thus assembling the decisions of the courts and of railroad and public service commissions is that the courts have allowed higher valuations than the administrative tribunals. A comparative analysis also reveals that the administrative tribunals have been more thorough and scientific in their methods of arriving at conclusions. The courts have neither the training nor the attitude of mind needed for such purposes. Perchance it is because of this difference in methods of valuation that the serving corporations have always used their influence to have full appeal to the courts. It is happily significant, however, that a few of the "modern" courts, such as the Wisconsin supreme court, are holding that the functions of the courts, when considering an order of a railroad or public service commission, should be confined to the negative field of declaring invalid only those orders of the commission which are clearly confiscatory.

The book is of inestimable value to all those at all concerned in the fundamental principles of regulating public service corporations. Dr. Whitten has done his work in a most meritorious manner.

CLYDE L. KING.

University of Pennsylvania.

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THE SOCIAL EVIL. Edited by Edwin R. A. Seligman. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

A NEW CONSCIENCE AND AN ANCIENT EVIL. By Jane Addams. New York: The Macmillan Company.

THE WHITE SLAVE TRAFFIC. By O. Edward Janney. New York: The National Vigilance Committee.

The late William H. Baldwin was a pioneer in the modern consideration and treatment of the social evil. The report of the Committee of Fifteen of which he was chairman issued in 1902 has long been regarded as a standard authority. The committee which was created to institute "a searching inquiry, uninfluenced by partisan considerations, into the causes of the increase of gambling and of vice in the city of New York" went about its work carefully and thoroughly and its statements of facts and conclusions has an application and a value far beyond the confines of the city, so that when the first edition of the report was exhausted, a second one was prepared by Professor Seligman of Columbia, the secretary of the original committee.

This volume contains the report proper without any changes. Part III contains the new matter and is devoted to the decade's development (1902–1912).

The bibliography is full, although arranged according to authors instead of subdivisions of the subjects. The division into nations is helpful.

Miss Addams writes out of a long and wide experience, a full knowledge and a deep sympathy. She pleads with her usual force, sanity and aptness for wider discussion and increased social control. Her book supplements and reinforces the reports of the Committee of Fifteen and of the Chicago Vice Commission.[1]

This volume is made up principally of articles which originally appeared in the *McClure's Magazine* and has no index.

Dr. Janney's book is the outgrowth of his work as chairman of the National Vigilance Committee for the Suppression of the White Slave Traffic, and as one of the two official representatives of the United States at the International White Slave Congress held at Madrid, October 24–28, 1910. It is a clear, concise statement of facts about this "plague of evil." The appendix contains the texts of treaty and laws dealing with the subject.

These three volumes illustrate how much progress has been accomplished since Prof. Sheldon Amos wrote his book *A Comparative Survey of Laws in Force for the Prohibition, Regulation and Licensing of Vice in England and Other Countries* in 1887, in which he said:

> The subject of this treatise encounters peculiar obstacles in the way of public and thorough discussion. It receives only scanty notice at the hands of public journalists. It can never form the topic of common conversation.

C. R. W.

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REPLANNING SMALL CITIES. By John Nolen. New York: B. W. Huebsch. $2.50 net.

Mr. Nolen has gathered his reports on Roanoke, a small city of the new south; San Diego, a Pacific Coast report and future resort; Montclair, a residence town suburban to New York; Glen Ridge, a model borough in New Jersey; Reading, a small industrial city, and Madison, a state capital and university town, added opening and closing chapters and given us this very interesting volume. While there is little that is new, it is helpful to have these suggestive studies in one compact volume. Its place in the city planning movement will be considered in the January issue in leading articles from the pens of Prof. Charles A. Beard, associate editor of the NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, and Charles Mulford Robinson.

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[1] See NATIONAL MUNICIPAL REVIEW, vol. 1, p. 84.

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THE HISTORY OF THE GENERAL FEDERATION OF WOMEN'S CLUBS. By Mary I. Wood. New York: The History Department of the G. F. W. C. 1912. $1.50.

The history committee of the General Federation is responsible for this interesting account of the first twenty years' activities of that most useful body. This well indexed volume of 445 pages gives chronologically an account of the formation of the Federation, and of each annual meeting. It is to be hoped that the same or an equally competent committee will in the course of the next two or three years give us a topical history. It would be most interesting to learn at first hand how interest in one vital subject after another has been developed and made effective. The present volume does not aim to do this. If one wishes to ascertain for instance what action the Federation has taken in civic affairs reference must be had to the index. By doing this we find that in describing the very first meeting these words:

> This gathering of women was, even to themselves, a revelation of a new force. The reports from the individual clubs showed great similarity. Starting almost invariably with the small band of congenial women who came together for self culture and intellectual improvement, the very exercise of these pursuits had aroused a thirst for knowledge along broader lines and had turned the thoughts of the members from the old meaningless routine of social life into a wider, more stimulating interest and participation in educational and civic affairs.

From that time on to the present that interest has broadened and developed until the Federation has become one of the big dominating factors in our American civic life. The details of movements are told, but chronologically along with other matter all valuable, all important, but needing to be supplemented by a rearrangement along the lines indicated.

C. R. W.

BOOKS RECEIVED

THE CONTROL OF TRUSTS. By John Bates Clark and John Maurice Clark. New York: The Macmillan Company. $1.00 net.

GOVERNMENT BY ALL THE PEOPLE, OR THE INITIATIVE, REFERENDUM AND RECALL AS INSTRUMENTS OF DEMOCRACY. By Delos F. Wilcox. New York: The Macmillan Company. $1.50 net.

HANDBOOK FOR HIGHWAY ENGINEERS. By Wilson G. Harger and Edmund A. Bonney. New York: McGraw-Hill Company. $3.00 net.

HOUSING PROBLEMS IN AMERICA. Proceedings of the First National Conference on Housing. New York City. 1911.

SOME CHEMICAL PROBLEMS OF TODAY. By Robert Kennedy Duncan. New York: Harper and Brothers. $2.00 net.

THE COURTS, THE CONSTITUTION AND PARTIES. By Andrew C. McLaughlin. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press. $1.50.

FIRE PREVENTION. By Peter Joseph McKeon. New York: The Chief Publishing Company.

THE PRESIDENT'S CABINET. By Henry Barrett Learned. New Haven, Conn.: Yale University Press. $2.50.

THE TAXATION OF LAND VALUES. By Louis F. Post. Chicago: The Public. 30 cents.

RECENT MUNICIPAL DOCUMENTS

Miss Adelaide R. Hasse

Chief of the Bureau of Documents, New York Public Library

Administration in General

Berlin, Germany. Gemeindeblatt der Haupt- und Residenzstadt. Jahrg. 53. 1912. no. 16–13. April 21–August 4. p. 197–332.

No. 16 contains a long defense against the attacks made upon the city because of the quantity of wood being cut from the Bucher Wald, a municipal property acquired in 1898 for dumping purposes. No. 18 (p. 224, May 5) has a notice that the unearned increment tax for the city of Berlin is declared legal after having been twice appealed. All of these papers contain material on the continuation or vocational schools of Berlin.

Bordeaux, France. Procès-verbaux des séances du conseil municipal de Bordeaux. 1912. no. 3–7. March 5–April 26. p. 43–193.

Boston, Mass. City Record (weekly). v. 4, no. 18–34. May 4–August 24, 1912. p. 357–704. 4°.

All bids and contracts awarded as well as departmental notices, are published in the City Record. Nos. 29, 33 and 34 contain a communication from the finance commission to the mayor protesting against the mayor's refusal to purchase Graetzin lamps for street lighting. No. 33 contains a report from the same commission of an investigation of fire department automobile apparatus. On p. 659 of No. 33 is a table showing the amounts which each of 15 American cities propose to spend in carrying into effect their several schemes of city planning. No. 32 contains (p. 616) a comparative table showing department expenditures to August 1 of each year for a five-year period to 1912–13. No. 28 contains a letter from the health commissioner on Boston's milk supply. No. 27 reprints an article from the Engineering Record by Nelson P. Lewis, chief engineer of the New York City board of estimate and apportionment on the pavement problem, especially as to repaving as it relates to New York City. No. 26 has a note on a municipal museum for New York City. No. 24 contains the text of Mayor Fitzgerald's address before the National Conference on City Planning, May 28. This is followed by the text of the address of Street Commissioner James A. Gallivan before the same body on "Paying the Bills for City Improvements." Mr. Gallivan comments on the recent constitutional amendment adopted in Massachusetts whereby the principle of excess condemnation applies to the cities and towns of the commonwealth. No. 23 construes the law of 1912 (ch. 272, act of 1912) relating to the collection of taxes and under which the city collector of Boston is made personally liable for the amount of all taxes outstanding three years from their commitment to him. No. 23 (p. 458–459) contains "Some data on the metropolitan park system." No. 22 contains an article on the "Expenditures for Sewerage Works [of Boston] from 1895 to 1912." The same number quotes from Professor Munroe's article in "The American City" on excess condemnation. No. 19 contains a statement of the commissioner of public works in reply to a report of the finance commission, printed in No. 18, on the ferry service.

Breslau, Germany. Verwaltungsbericht für die drei Rechnungsjahre vom 1 April 1907 bis 31 März, 1910. xviii, 803, 325 p.

Centralia, Washington. Summary of proceedings and itemized statement in detail of the receipts and expenditures of the city commission (monthly). 1912, January–May. 4°.

Charleston, S. C. Yearbook, 1911. xii, 511 p. 8°.

Chattanooga, Tenn. Municipal Record. v. 1, no. 9–12. 1912, January–May. v. 2, no. 1–2. 1912, June–July. 4°. illus.

Each number contains a financial statement for the month. Vol. 1, no. 10 contains a report on the public parks of Chattanooga; no. 11 contains tables showing kind and value of present manufactures of Chattanooga and also a table showing her industries, investment, employees, annual production and annual wages in 1860, 1866, 1880, 1890, 1905 and 1912.

Chicago, Ill. Civil Service Commission. Charts of organization of all departments of the city of Chicago as in effect February, 1912.

—— Civil Service Commission. Report on the Building department inquiry. 1912. 59 p.

The Engineering Record's comments on this report are reprinted in the Boston City Record, v. 4, no. 28, p. 526.

Colorado Springs, Colo. Summary of proceedings and department reports (monthly). 1912, January–June.

CORUÑA, Spain. Boletin del ayuntamiento de la Coruña y estadisticas. (Monthly). 1912. January–May. 4°.

The "estadisticas" are the regular monthly statistical reports, which have been entered below under Statistics, which see.

DENVER, Colo. Denver Municipal Facts (weekly). v. 4, no. 18–34. 1912. May 4–August 24. illus.

No. 18 contains description and illustrations of the buildings to be razed and the sites to be condemned for the proposed civic center, and a note on the auction sale of stalls at the city market. No. 19 contains an illustrated article on the annual civic parade of 1912. No. 20 contains an illustrated article on the parks of Denver. No. 21 has an illustrated article on the annual play festival of 1912. No. 22 has cuts of motor propelled fire and police apparatus and more material on parks and playgrounds, also a brief history of Denver's great civic center project. No. 23 reproduces the table from the Brooklyn Eagle showing the approximate amount 15 American cities propose to spend in city planning schemes. No. 24 has a communication on the city playgrounds. No. 25 publishes the rules and regulations for motors and vehicles in force in Denver. No. 28 has an illustrated article on designs in ornamental street lighting in Denver, a table showing telephone rates in 28 American cities, a record of the proceedings of the first meeting of the city board of advisers appointed by various commercial and civic bodies. No. 31 contains the report of Frederick Law Olmsted on developing Denver's civic center.

DIJON, France. Bulletin municipal officiel de la ville. Année 17, série 2. 1912. no. 3–7. March–July. p. 141–542.

Each number includes the Bulletin mensuel de statistique of the Bureau d'hygiène for the preceding month.

HANAU, Germany. Bericht über die Verwaltung, 1908–1910. (2), 350, 64 p.

HOUSTON, Texas. Progressive Houston. v. 3, no. 12. 1912, April. v. 4, no. 1–3. 1912, May–July.

V. 4, no. 3, has an illustrated article on the local market.

HUDDERSFIELD, England. Abstract of the accounts of the treasurer of the corporation for the year ended 31st March, 1912. 218, 31 p. 8°.

JOHANNESBURG, Transvaal. Minutes of the municipal council. 1912, February 7–July 24. p. 103–669. f°.

KEOKUK, Ia. Second annual report April 1, 1911, to March 31, 1912, under the commission plan of government. 34 p., 1 leaf. 8°.

LOS ANGELES, Cal. Los Angeles Municipal News (weekly). v. 1, no. 1–20. 1912, April 17–August 28.

Paper is the size of an ordinary newspaper with advertisements.

MANCHESTER, England. Proceedings of the municipal council, 1910–11. 3 vols. 8°.

MARSEILLE, France. Bulletin municipal officiel de la ville de Marseille. (weekly). Année 18. no. 829–842. 1912, January 7–May 26. p. 1–100.

MILWAUKEE, Wis. Bureau of economy and efficiency publications.

No. 14. Water works efficiency. 2. Present capacity and future requirements. February 15, 1912. 23 (1) p., 2 maps.

No. 15. Health department. 2. Education and publications. February 29, 1912. 28 p., 1 chart.

No. 16. Water works efficiency. 3. Operating efficiency. March 15, 1912. 30 p., 5 charts.

No. 17. Recreation survey. March 31, 1912. 31 (1) p.

Theatres, moving picture shows, playfields, dance halls, etc.

No. 18. Health department. 3. Communicable diseases. April 15, 1912. 37(1) p., 1 l., 1 chart.

No. 19. Eighteen months' work [of the bureau]. April 15, 1912. 44 p.

MUNICH, Germany. Sitzungsberichte des Magistrats, Gemeinde-Kollegiums, etc., Jahrg. 41, no. 31–63. April 20–August 7, 1912. p. 697–1201. 4°.

Munich is erecting a new building at a cost of 330,000 M. to be used only as a hog market (p. 713 et seq.). A special school for deaf children (p. 717 et seq.) is proposed. Pages 724 et seq. contain a lengthy discussion on the regulation of street peddlers. The automobilization of the fire service is discussed on p. 734, 753 et seq. Pages 742 et seq. contain a discussion relative to a general increase in the wages of municipal laborers. The concessions demanded by the protective union of wholesale fruit-dealers in the public market are discussed on p. 864 et seq. The pros and cons of an unbroken school and work day are interestingly debated on p. 791–802. Pages 1073–1083 relate to the reorganization of the free medical service for the poor. Incidentally the system of compulsory or voluntary attendance as obtaining in other German cities is discussed.

Nancy, France. Bulletin administratif. Tome 34. Année 1911. 423 p., plans. 4°.

—— Procès-verbaux des délibérations du conseil. Année 1911. 588 p. 8°.

Pittsfield, Mass. Municipal register, 1912. 386 p. 8°.

Springfield, Mass. Municipal register of the city of Springfield for 1912. 1118 p.

Contains annual reports of the auditor, board of health, building commission, building department, chief of police, engineer, fire commission, forester, liquor license commission, overseers of the poor, park commission, police commission, schools, sinking fund commission, superintendent of street, of sewers, treasurer, water commissioners.

Abattoirs

See below "Statistics" (Berlin, Duisburg, Düsseldorf, Halle a. S., Johannesburg, Königsberg, Milan, Munich).

Bakeshop Inspection

See also below "Public Health" (Aberdeen), "Statistics" (Buenos Aires).

Rovigo, Italy. Panificio communale di Rovigo. Previsioni per l'anno 1912. Anno 5. 7 p. f°.

Bill Boards

New York City. Accounts Commissioner. Report on an investigation of billboard advertising in the City of New York. 1912. 39 p. illus. 8°.

—— Report of the committee on buildings of the board of aldermen relative to the regulation of signboards. July 11, 1912. (City Record, 1912. pp. 5970–5971.)

Budgets

Amiens, France. Budget ou état des recettes et dépenses pour l'exercice 1912. 129 (1) p. 4°.

Bochum, Germany. Haushaltspläne für das Rechnungsjahr 1912. 126, 11 p. 4°.

Budapest, Hungary. Költségvetése 1912 évré. 226,690, 74 p. 4°.

Budget of Budapest for 1912.

Cassel, Germany. Haushalts-etat für das Etatsjahr bis Ende März 1912. 299 p. 4°.

Crefeld, Germany. Haushaltsplan für das Rechnungsjahr 1912. 498 p. 4°.

Dijon, France. Budget des recettes et des dépenses pour l'exercice 1912. 52 p., 6 leaves. 4°.

Elberfeld, Germany. Haushaltsplan für das Rechnungsjahr 1912. 643 p. 4°.

Fougères, France. Budget de 1912. 45 (1) p. 4°.

Freiburg, i Br., Germany. Voranschläge für das Rechnungsjahr 1912. xxvi, 265 p. 4°.

Hanau, Germany. Haushaltsplan für das Rechnungsjahr 1912. 273 p. 4°.

Lüneburg, Germany. Haushaltsplan für 1912. 265 p. 4°.

Lyon, France. Budget municipal pour l'année 1912. 158 p. 4°.

—— Documents relatifs au projet de budget de 1912. Rapport présenté au conseil municipal par le maire de la ville. 631 p., charts. 4°.

Munich, Germany. Haushaltplan für die Gemeinde, Stiftungen und Armenpflege im jahre 1912. xi, 620 p. 4°.

Nancy, France. Budget ou état des recettes et dépenses pour l'exercice 1912. 57 p. 4°.

New York City. Board of Estimate and Apportionment. Departmental estimates for the budget of 1913. 280 p. f°.

Nimes, France. Budget ou état des recettes et des dépenses pour l'exercice 1912. 92 p. 4°.

Norfolk, Va. Budget for 1912–1913. Amounts recommended by the finance committee for the fiscal year beginning July 1, 1912. 10 (1) p. f°.

Vienna, Austria. Hauptvoranschlag für das Verwaltungsjahr 1912. 3 Theile. 4°.

Building Construction

See above "Administration in General" (Springfield), and below "Statistics" (Aachen, Berlin, Boston, Chemnitz, Duisburg, Düsseldorf, Halle a. S., Johannesburg, Milan, Munich).

Charters and Ordinances

Aachen, Germany. Aachener Ortsrecht. Sammlung der Ortsstatuten sowie der die Verwaltung der Stadt Aachen und ihre einzelnen Einrichtunzen betreffenden wichtigeren allgemeinen Bestimmungen. Jahrg. 1912, Heft 1–3. p. 1–92. 8°.

Heft 1 contains, among others, ordinances regulating the municipal pawnshop, and a taxicab ordinance; Heft 2 an ordinance regulating the baths in the public school houses; Heft 3 an ordinance providing for widows and orphans of teachers in the public schools.

Caen, France. Bulletin municipal de la ville de Caen. Année 20, no. 2–5. 1912, February–May.

Pages 106–123 contain Cahier des charges pour l'exploitation du Théatre de Caen, saison théâtrale 1912–1913.

Cedar Rapids, Ia. Ordinances of the city passed 1912. no. 967–987.

Ordinances 974–975 authorize the Cedar Rapids and Iowa City Rwy. and Light Co. to maintain a power plant in Cedar Rapids, a heating plant, and to operate a system of interurban railway lines. Ordinance 987 licenses and regulates hacks, cabs, omnibuses, carriages, taxicabs, automobiles, baggage wagons, drays and other vehicles kept for hire.

Duisburg, Germany. Sammlung von Bekanntmachungen und Verordnungen der Stadt Duisburg. (Irregular). Jahrg. 2, no. 3. April–December, 1911. p. 49–67. 4°.

Contains text of a market ordinance, and of an ordinance regulating traffic.

Louisville, Ky. Ninth biennial compilation of general statutes of the City of Louisville. 1911. Published by authority of a resolution of the General Council approved January 18, 1912. 1000 p. 8°.

Child Welfare

See also below "Public Health" (Detroit), and "Statistics" (Halle a. S.).

Boston, Mass. Annual report (15th) of the Children's Institutions Department for 1911–12. 65 p. 8°.

Seven members constitute the board of managers, who report directly to the mayor. The children under the care of the board are classed as delinquent children cared for at the Suffolk School for Boys, boys committed as truants by the courts are cared for at the Parental School at West Roxbury, and dependent and neglected children of Boston boarded or placed free in families.

Trieste, Austria. Tabella statistica relativa ai civici giardini d'enfanzia di Trieste, 1910–11. f°.

City Planning

See also above "Administration in General" (Boston, Denver).

Hartford, Conn. A plan of the city of Hartford. Preliminary report by Carrére and Hastings to the Commission on the City Plan. 1912. 117 p., 5 maps, 11 plates. 8°.

Civic Improvement

St. Joseph, Mo. Civic activities in city building. Compiled by Daniel Morton, M.D. Folder. 8°.

Suggestive list of problems and activities for the use of all agencies working for the advancement of civic and social welfare. Published by the St. Joseph Public Library.

Civil Service

Chattanooga, Tenn. Ordinance no. 1360 to prescribe rules and regulations governing the civil service of the city. Approved January 22, 1912. 11 p. 8°.

Commerce

See below "Statistics" (Boston, Duisburg, Düsseldorf, Königsberg).

Bremen, Germany. Jahrbuch für Bremische statistik. Jahrgang 1911. Zur statistik des schiffs- und Warenverkehrs im Jahre 1911. Herausgegeben vom Bremischen statistischen amt. 1912. 375 p. 8°.

A detailed statement of the seaborne and railborne trade of Bremen. In an appendix is a table showing the marine insurance business of Bremen from 1847 to 1910; the character of the merchant marine of the Weser from 1847 to 1911, also the emigrants leaving by the port of Bremen during 1911 by nationality, age groups and sex, and, in detail, the destination. There is further a comparative table showing by destination aggregate emigration annually, 1904 to 1911, and a table of total emigration from 1832 to 1911 in 5-year groups.

The city of Bremen has issued this Jahrbuch in this form since 1875. Each year there are issued two statistical compilation, viz., the one above described and a general statistical volume. This Jahrbuch was preceded by an earlier series, entitled Jahrbuch für die amtliche statistik des Bremischen Staats, the first number of which was issued in 1867.

Stockholm, Sweden. Stockholm stads statistik. xi. Handel och sjöfart. Berättelse Årgang 10, 1910. Stockholm, 1912. 22, 220 p. 4°.

Courts.

See below "Industrial and Commercial Courts."

Dance Halls

See above "Administration in General" (Milwaukee.

Debt

See also above "Administration in General" (Springfield).

Massachusetts. Report of the director of the Bureau of Statistics of a special investigation relative to the indebtedness of the cities and towns of the Commonwealth. April 15, 1912. 286 p. 8°.

Elections

See below "Statistics" (Boston).

Employment Bureaus

See also below "Statistics" (Chemnitz, Duisburg, Düsseldorf, Halle a. S., Königsberg, Munich).

Stockholm, Sweden. Stockholm stads statistik. ix. Arbetsförmedling. Berättelse. Årgang 5, 1910. Stockholm, 1912. 60, 35 p., 2 diagrams. 4°.

Excess Condemnation

See above "Administration in General" (Boston), and below "Libraries" (Newark).

Factory Inspection

See below "Public Health" (Aberdeen).

Ferry Service

See above "Administration in General" (Boston).

Finance

See also above "Administration in General" (Centralia, Chattanooga, Springfield).

Blackburn, England. Abstract of the treasurer's accounts for the year ended 25th March, 1912. xxv, 289 p. 9 folding tables. 8°.

Among the municipal undertakings accounted for are abattoirs, cemetery, free library, gas department, gymnasium, markets, museums, parks, public baths, electricity supply, refuse destructors. Pages 275–286 comprise general statistics, viz., rating of the borough each year from 1891–92 to 1912–13, rateable value of various classes of property in the borough, each year, 1893–1912, income, expenditure and application of profits of markets, gas works and waterworks department each year 1900 to 1912, —— electricity department each year since establishment of the works, viz., 1894–1912, —— tramways department each year since transfer to the corporation, viz., 1899 to 1912.

Boston, Mass. Monthly statement of the city treasurer and of the treasurer of the board of commissioners of sinking funds. 1912, April–July.

Glasgow, Scotland. Abstract statement of income and expenditure for year ended 31st May, 1912. 45 p. f°.

Pages 26–29 contain tables showing weekly traffic revenue 1894–1912. On p. 30 there are diagrammatic tables showing operating expenses, passengers carried, revenue per passenger, car mileage and revenue per car mile, in millions, each year, 1895 to 1912.

Great Yarmouth, England. Abstract of the accounts of the treasurers for the year ended 31st March, 1912. 106 leaves.

At the end is a classified comparative statement of receipts and expenditures for the years 1894–1912.

Norfolk, Va. An ordinance making appropriations for the fiscal year beginning July 1, 1912. 9 p. 8°.

Rhode Island. First annual report on the statistics of municipal finances of the six cities and thirty-two towns in Rhode Island [for 1910]. 1911. 137 p. 8°.

Rovigo, Italy. Bilancio di previsione per l'anno 1912. 1 folio folding sheet.

St. Paul, Minn. Annual report of the city comptroller for the fiscal year ended December 31, 1911. 122 p. 3 leaves, 3 folding tables.

Fire Service

See also above "Administration in General" (Boston, Denver, Munich, Springfield), and below

"Statistics" (Aachen, Berlin, Boston, Chemnitz, Coruña, Duisburg, Florence, Halle a. S., Johannesburg, Milan, Munich).

Kansas City, Mo. Annual report of the board of fire and water commissioners for the year ending April 15, 1912. 132 (1) p. 4 charts. illus.

On p. 71-75 is the text of an ordinance equalizing and reducing meter rates and adjusting a monthly schedule. On p. 102 is a table showing total number of alarms, losses and insurance on property involved in each year 1881-1911.

Food and Drug Regulation

See also below "Public Health" (Aberdeen, Boston, Hartford), and "Statistics" (Buenos Aires, Coruña, Halle a. S., Munich).

Columbus, O. Regulations of the board of health relative to meat. 1912. 24 p. 8°.

—— Regulations of the board of health relative to milk, cream and ice cream. 1912. 13 p. 8°.

Hospitals

See below "Statistics" (Berlin, Buenos Aires, Königsberg, Munich).

Housing

See also below "Statistics" (Munich).

Edinburgh, Scotland. Annual report (14th) of the sanitary department for the year 1911. 63 p. f°.

David Rutherford, chief sanitary inspector. The work of the inspector is largely the maintenance of sanitary housing conditions.

Industrial and Commercial Courts

See below "Statistics" (Duisburg, Düsseldorf, Halle a. S., Königsberg, Munich). This material relates to the industrial and labor courts only.

Insurance

See also below "Statistics" (Berlin—invalidity, old age and sick insurance; Boston, Chemnitz—sick insurance; Duisburg—sick insurance; Düsseldorf, Halle a. S.—sick, invalidity and old age insurance; Königsberg—sick insurance; Munich).

Berlin, Germany. Verwaltungsbericht des Magistrats zu Berlin für das Etatsjahr 1911. No. 28. Bericht der abteilung für Invalidenversicherung. 3 p. f°.

Munich, Germany. Bericht über die Münchener Krankenkassen für das Jahr 1911. 3 p. 4°.

Labor Conditions

See also above "Administration in General" (Munich,—wages of municipal laborers and continuous shorter workday or a split work day), and below "Statistics" (Aachen, Berlin, Boston—minors; Munich—arbitration bureau).

Munich, Germany. Die Arbeitslosenzählung in München und seiner Umgebung vom 11 Februar 1912. 30 p., 2 leaves. 4°.

Legal Aid Bureaus

See below "Statistics" (Chemnitz, Duisburg, Halle a. S.)

Libraries

See also below "Statistics" (Aachen, Boston, Chemnitz, Düsseldorf, Königsberg).

Berlin, Germany. Verwaltungsbericht des Magistrats zu Berlin für das Etatsjahr 1911. No. 12. Bericht über die Verwaltung der Stadtbibliothek under der städtischen Volksbibliotheken und Lesehallen. 2 p. f°.

Danzig, Germany. Bericht über die Verwaltung der Stadtbibliothek zu Danzig für das Verwaltungsjahr 1 April, 1911-12. n. t. p. 4p. 4°.

Los Angeles, Cal. Los Angeles Public Library. Twenty-fourth annual report. 1911-1912. 46 p. 8°.

Newark, N. J. The Newarker. Published monthly by the Free Public Library of Newark. v. 1, no. 6-9. 1912, April-July. p. 87-155.

No. 6 has an article on women and wages in New Jersey and one on excess condemnation—history by M. C. N[erny]. No. 9 has an article on incidental versus excess condemnation, containing extracts from an opinion written by John De Witt Warner for the guidance of the New York City Department of Docks.

St. Louis, Mo. The St. Louis Public Library. An account of its work especially that done in the year ending April 30, 1912. p. 59-132. illus. 8°.

—— Annual report 1911-1912. 132 p. illus. 8°.

York, England. Nineteenth general report of the public library committee, 1911–1912. 16 p.

Light and Power Plants

See also above "Administration in General" (Boston), and below "Statistics" (Aachen, Berlin, Duisburg, Düsseldorf, Halle a. S., Johannesburg, Munich).

Deventer, Netherlands. Begrooting van de Gemeente-Gasfabrik voor 1912. 23 p. 8°.

Providence, R. I. Lighting contract and franchise agreement between the City of Providence and the Narragansett Electric Lighting Co. 1912. 56 p. 8°.

Rovigo, Italy. Officina comunale del gas di Rovigo. Previsioni per l'anno 1912. Anno 3. 7 p. f°.

United States Standards Bureau. Circular 32. State and municipal regulations for the quality, distribution and testing of illuminating gas. 1st edition. Issued April 1, 1912. 133 p. 4°.

Liquor Traffic

See above "Administration in General" (Springfield), and below "Statistics" (Königsberg).

Lodging House Inspection

See below "Public Health" (Aberdeen).

Markets

See also above "Administration in General (Denver, Houston, Munich), Charters and Ordinances (Duisburg), and below "Public Health" (Colorado Springs), "Statistics" (Duisburg, Düsseldorf, Florence, Halle a. S., Johannesburg, Königsberg, Milan, Munich).

Berlin, Germany. Preis-Zusammenstellungen des statistischen Amts der Stadt Berlin. A. Städtischer Vieh- und Schlachthof. B. Städtische Markthallen. 1912. 1–6. January–June. f°.

Budapest. Vásárcsarnokainak évkönyue az 1910 évröl. Tizennegyedik év. 1911. vi, 183 p. 4°.

The 14th annual report of the public markets of Budapest for 1910.

Munich, Germany. Viktualienmarkt-Ordnung. April 15, 1912. 7 p. 4°.

An ordinance regulating the public market for the retail sale of food stuffs

Meat Inspection

See also below "Public Health" (Cincinnati, Milwaukee), and "Statistics" (Boston, Buenos Aires, Chemnitz).

Melvin (A. D.) State and municipal meat inspection and municipal slaughter houses. 1912. p. 24–254, 1 plan. (United States. Bureau of Animal Industry. Circular 185.)

Milk Supply

See also above "Administration in General" (Boston), and below "Public Health" (Aberdeen, Cincinnati, Colorado Springs, Detroit, Milwaukee), and "Statistics" (Halle a. S., Munich).

New York Milk Committee. Infant mortality and milk stations. Special report of the committee for the reduction of infant mortality of the New York milk committee. 1912. xi, 176 p. illus. diagrams. 4°.

The purpose of this report is to make available to every one having an interest in the campaign against infant mortality, the information acquired by the committee during the summer of 1911, when it undertook a demonstration to determine the value of infants' milk stations as a means of reducing that mortality. The report is very thorough, and would be extremely useful wherever a pure milk campaign is to be waged. Copies may be requested of the committee 105 East 22d Street, New York City.

Moving Pictures

See above "Administration in General" (Milwaukee), and below "Police" (Chicago).

Municipal Accounting

United States. Census Bureau. Uniform accounts as a basis for standard forms for reporting financial and other statistics of [municipal] health departments. By L. G. Powers. 1912. 16 p. 8°.

Municipal Exhibits

See above "Administration in General" (Boston—refers to the New York City budget exhibit).

Municipal Lodging Houses

Budapest. Das Volkshotel im vi Bezirk der Haupt- u. Residenzstadt Budapest. 1912. 23 p. 16 plates. 8°.

By Dr. E. Ferenczi, social welfare adviser to the city.

St. Louis, Missouri. Public Library. Monthly bulletin n. s. v. 10 no. 7. July, 1912. Municipal reference number. Municipal lodging houses. p. 325–348. 8°.

Municipal Pageants, etc.

See above "Administration in General" (Denver).

Municipal Pawnshops

See above "Charters and Ordinances" (Aachen), and below "Statistics" (Chemnitz, Duisburg, Düsseldorf, Halle a. S., Königsberg, Munich).

Municipal Savings Banks

See below "Statistics" (Aachen, Berlin, Chemnitz, Duisburg, Düsseldorf. Halle, a. S., Königsberg, Munich).

Municipal Theaters

See above "Charters and Ordinances" (Caen).

Museums and Art Galleries

See below "Statistics" (Aachen, Boston, Düsseldorf, Florence).

Parks

See also above "Administration in General" (Boston, Chattanooga, Denver, Springfield).

Kansas City, Mo. Special report for the Blue Valley Parkway. Board of park commissioners. March, 1912. 46 p., 7 plates, illus. 4 maps.

Los Angeles, Cal. Park Commission. Silver Lake Parkway. A brief discussion of the proposed Silver Lake Parkway and its relation to a park and boulevard system for Los Angeles. February, 1912. 11 p.

Peddlers

See above "Administration in General" (Munich).

Pensions

See above "Charters and Ordinances" (Aachen).

Playgrounds

See above "Administration in General" (Denver, Milwaukee).

Plumbing Inspection

See below "Public Health" (Colorado Springs Hartford).

Police

See also above "Administration in General" (Springfield), and below "Statistics" (Boston, Coruña, Florence).

Chicago, Ill. Final report of the Civil Service Commission. Police investigation 1911–1912. 54 pp., 3 leaves. 8°.

Inquiry conducted by authority of the mayor September 5, 1911 to March 7, 1912. Details of vice investigation, departmental analysis, reorganization plan.

—— Report of the general superintendent of police for the year ending December 31, 1911. 132 p., 1 leaf, 3 folding tables. 8°.

Contains report of moving picture bureau.

New York City. Annual parade and review of the New York Police Department, May 18, 1912. Official programme. 20 leaves, 2 plates. obl. 8°.

The last 2 leaves comprise a summary history of the New York City police department, 1653–1912.

—— Report on an examination of the surgical division of the police department, May 17, 1912. Office of Commissioner of Accounts, New York City. 16 p. 12°.

Poor

See also above "Administration in General" (Munich), "Statistics" (Berlin, Düsseldorf, Munich).

Mannheim, Germany. Jahrbuch für die Verwaltung der städtischen Armen- und waisenpflege in Mannheim. Jahrg. 13. 1912. 119 p. 8°.

Port Development

Boston, Mass. [Statement of the directors of the port of Boston recommending legislation for the public control of the water front, piers and railroad connections used for commercial purposes.] April 12, 1912. 7 p. 8°.

Senate Doc. 465, 1912. The total assessed valuation of the property proposed to be taken over is $17,697,000.

—— [Reply of the directors of the port of Boston to the order of the General Court calling for more specific information supporting the director's claim for the need of a dry dock in Boston.] May 14, 1912. 6 p. 8°.

Senate Doc. 514, 1912. Docking rates for some foreign and large American cities are tabulated.

New York State. A preliminary report of the New York State Commission to investigate port conditions and pier extensions in New York harbor. July 22, 1912. 2 leaves, 1 folding map. f°.

Public Baths

See also above "Charters and Ordinances" (Aachen—baths in school houses) and below "Statistics" (Berlin, Boston, Florence, Munich).

Budapest. Internationale Hygiene-Ausstellung. Dresden 1911. Die städtischen thermalbäder von Budapest. Artesisches Bad, Blocksbad, Bruckbad. 4 leaves. 8°.

With illustrations of the handsome new baths of Budapest.

New York City. Public baths under the supervision of the President of the Borough of Manhattan. 1912. 18 p. 1 plate, illus. 8°.

Twelve free public interior baths and eleven free floating baths were maintained during 1911. The total patronage of the interior baths for 1911 was 3,581,846. The total cost was $336,503.51 (operation $106,674.80; maintenance $122,940.14.) The total patronage of the floating baths was 1,818,721 and the total cost was $42,334.17 (operation $28,134.56; maintenance $14,199.61.)

Public Charities

Hartford, Conn. Sixteenth annual report of the board of charity commissioners for the year ended April 1, 1912. 39(1) p. 3 plates. 8°.

The city maintains an almshouse, a city hospital and a home and infirmary for children erected in 1911.

On the last page is a summary of appropriations by fiscal years commencing with the establishment of the board in 1896 and ending with 1912; also, a summary of disbursements for almshouse, hospitals, asylums and other accounts, amounts recovered from the state and the net cost for the care of the poor and infirm.

Public Health and Vital Statistics

See also above "Administration in General" (Milwaukee, Springfield), and below "Statistics" (Aachen, Berlin, Coruña, Duisburg, Düsseldorf, Florence, Johannesburg, Kõnigsberg, Milan, Munich).

Aberdeen, Scotland. Reports [monthly] by the medical officer of health and the sanitary inspector, January–June, 1912.

Vital statistics of the city and of the City Hospital. The sanitary inspector inspects food stuffs, factories and workshops, bakehouses, dwellings, lodging-houses and dairies.

Amsterdam, Netherlands. Communications statistiques. No. 33. Statistique démographique des grandes villes du monde pendant les années 1880–1909; 1re partie. Europe. Publiée à l'occasion de la xiiie session de l'Institut International de Statistique à la Haye, September, 1911. xiii, 269 p. 8°.

Population, marriages, births and deaths for each year 1880–1909 in the larger cities of Europe (i.e., 97 in number); births by legitimacy and sex; infant mortality; deaths by causes. The table on infant mortality shows deaths under one year and still births in numbers and percentages. An appendix to this table contains a summary of regulations relating to birth certificates in the different countries. A second volume is in preparation which will contain, in addition to statistics as above for extra-European cities, returns illustrating demologic phenomena of urban communities.

Auburn, N. Y. Report of the health department (monthly). 1912, April–July.

Chiefly vital statistics and sanitation.

Besançon, France. Statistique démographique et médicale. Année 22. no. 7–14. 1912, April–July.

Boston, Mass. Monthly bulletin of the health department. v. 1, no. 3–4. 1912. March–April. p. 57–99.

No. 3 contains an article by Prof. James O. Jordan, inspector of milk and vinegar of the Boston Health Board on Vinegar and Vinegar Laws. It contains the text of a proposed law to prevent vinegar adulteration.

Cincinnati, O. Weekly report of the board of health. v. 3, no. 18–38. 1912, March 30–August 27. 8°.

Vital statistics, sanitary, meat and milk inspections.

Colorado Springs, Colo. Report of the health department. (Monthly). 1912, January–June. 8°.

Contents are always the same, viz.: Contagious diseases. Sanitation. Plumbing inspection. City dump. City scavenger. Report of market master.

Report of chemist and bacteriologist. Milk analysis. Cream analysis. Deaths. Births. Fumigations.

COPENHAGEN, Denmark. Ugentlig oversigt over födsler, sygdomme og dödsfold i Kobenhavn (weekly). Aargang 37. no. 1–32. 1912, January 6–August 10. 4°.

Contents are always the same, viz.: 1. Meteorological observations. 2. Births and deaths. 3. Births and deaths for the preceding 13 months. 4. Principal zymotic diseases for preceding 53 weeks. 5. Epidemic and contagious diseases. 6. Deaths of the week by cause, age and sex. 7. Epizootic diseases. 8. Deaths from epidemic causes in principal cities of the world for the week of latest advise.

DETROIT, Mich. Bulletin of the Detroit board of health. v. 2, 7–12. 1912, January-June. v. 3, no. 1. 1912, July.

Vital statistics, sanitary inspections, laboratory, school nurses, tuberculosis clinic, mothers' clinic, etc. V. 2, no. 2, contains a comparison of the cost of the health departments and the milk inspection of Pittsburgh, Cleveland, Chicago, Cincinnati and Detroit. V. 2, No. 10 has an account of operations under the ordinance granting an appropriation for the elimination of the fly nuisance.

EDINBURGH, Scotland. Annual report of the public health department for 1911. x, 86 p. f°.

Dr. A. Maxwell Williamson, medical officer of health. Comment on declining birthrate of Edinburgh; inference is that factor of emigration has influenced young adult population and disturbed course of natural increase. Improved housing conditions of Edinburgh are referred to. There are 6877 houses of one apartment inhabited by 18,608 persons. Two-roomed houses number 22,031.

The report is divided into 2 parts, the first part containing vital statistics and the second reports relating to meat inspection, inspection of cow byres, dairies, ice-cream shops, workshops, bakehouses and hairdressing saloons, and the administration of the shop hours, seats for shop assistants, and food and drug act.

HARTFORD, Conn. Vital statistics. Issued monthly by the health department. 1912, April–May.

Contents are always the same, viz.: Mortality and causes. Bacteriologist's report. Milk inspection. Contagious diseases. School inspections and exclusions. Sanitary report. Plumbing inspection. Food inspection. Meteorological observations.

LEICESTER, England. Sixty-third annual report upon the health of Leicester for the year 1911. 165 p. 1 map. 3 charts. 8°.

C. Killick Millard, medical officer of health. Contains reports on municipal infant's milk depot, opened July, 1906, on the isolation hospital, on the opening during the year of a municipal tuberculosis dispensary, on food inspection and reports of the refuse and street cleaning departments.

MILWAUKEE, Wis. The Healthologist. Published monthly by the health department. v. 2, no. 4–7. 1912, April–July.

Vital statistics, sanitation and child hygiene. The Healthologist is made up for campaign purposes. Each number closes with the Bulletin of the Bureau of Vital Statistics (births, marriages, deaths, interments, contagious diseases, meat inspection, bacteriological examinations, accidents, sanitary inspections, milk inspections).

MUNICH, Germany. Amtsärztlicher Bericht auf Grund der schulärztlichen Berichte für das Schuljahr 1910–11. 10 p. 4°.

NEW HAVEN, Conn. Monthly statement of mortality. 1912, January–July.

NEW ORLEANS, La. Statement of mortality. (Monthly). 1912, April–July.

Public Works

BOSTON, Mass. Address of street commissioner James A. Gallivan at the second session of the National Conference on City Planning, Tuesday May 28, 1912. 10 p. 8°.

Financing local improvements by assessment, excess condemnation, zone system of assessments.

CHICAGO, ILL. Proceedings of the board of trustees of the sanitary district of Chicago. 1912, January–July. 768 p.

NEW YORK CITY. A report on a special investigation of the initiation of public improvements in the office of the President of the Borough of Richmond, city of New York, June 3, 1912. Office of the Commissioner of Accounts, city of New York. 11 p. 12°.

PITTSBURGH, Pa. Report of the flood commission. April 16, 1912. 9 p.l., 252 (1), 452 p., 4 maps, plates. illus.

The Pittsburgh Flood Commission was organized on February 20, 1908, pursuant to a resolution adopted by the Chamber of Commerce of Pittsburgh. The report contains the results of the surveys and investigations and studies made by the commission for the purpose of determining the causes of damage by and methods of relief from floods in the Allegheny, Monongahela and Ohio Rivers at Pittsburgh, together with the benefits to navigation, sanitation water supply and water power to be obtained by river regulation. There is also a very full bibliography, the work of the Technology Department of the Carnegie Library of Pittsburgh.

WALTHAM, Mass. Annual reports of the city engineer, superintendent of sewers, and board of survey for the year ending January 31, 1912. 27 p. 8°.

This is the third report which the board of survey has made. This board is in effect a street planning authority, more particularly in relation to private ways. The constitution of a city planning commission is urged by the city engineer.

Refuse Disposal

See also above "Public Health" (Colorado Springs), and below "Statistics" (Munich).

Sanitation

See also above "Public Health" (Auburn, Cincinnati, Colorado Springs, Detroit, Hartford, Milwaukee), and below "Statistics" (Boston, Coruña, Florence, Johannesburg, Milan.)

CHICAGO, Ill. Bulletin Chicago School of Sanitary Instruction. Department of health (weekly). v. 6 (new series), no. 17–33. 1912, April 27–August 17. Whole no. 746–762. p. 65–132.

School Hygiene

See above "Public Health" (Detroit—school nurses; Hartford—school inspection).

Schools

See also above "Administration in General" (Munich—defective children; Springfield), and below "Statistics" (Aachen, Amsterdam, Boston, Düsseldorf).

BOSTON, Mass. School documents, 1911. no. 1–2, 5.

No. 1. Financial report of the school committee for the year ending Jan. 31, 1912. 97 p., 4 folding tables. No. 2. Course of study for the High School of Commerce. 11 p. No. 5. Candidates eligible for appointment as teachers, July 1912. 51 p.

NEW YORK CITY. Report of the school enquiry committee. (New York City. City Record. August 13, 1912. pp. 6739–6754.)

Includes report of Charles G. Armstrong, consulting engineer upon the condition of 56 school buildings.

Sewerage

See above "Administration in General" (Boston, Springfield) and below "Statistics" (Berlin, Königsberg).

Sign Boards

See above "Bill Boards."

Social Evil

See below "Statistics" (Buenos Aires).

Statistics

See also above "Administration in General" (Chattanooga).

AACHEN, Germany. Statistische Monatsberichte der Stadt Aachen. Jahrg. 11. no. 1–6. 1912, January–June.

The contents are always the same, viz. 1. Movement of population. 2. Public health. 3. Labor conditions. 4. Care of the poor. 5. Municipal savings bank. 6. Food stuffs, light and power plant. 7. Fire service. 8. Schools, libraries, museums and art galleries. 9. Building operations. 10. Meteorological notes.

AMSTERDAM, Netherlands. Statistische Mededeelingen uitgegeven door het Bureau van Statistiek der gemeente Amsterdam. no. 36. Openbaar en bijzonder onderwijs te Amsterdam 1908–10. 1912. iii. 4 p. 4°.

BERLIN, Germany. Monatsberichte des statistischen Amts der Stadt Berlin. Jahrg. 40. no. 1–6. 1912, January–June. f°.

The contents are always classified uniformly as follows: I. Climate, ground temperature and state of the river Spree. II. Marriages, births, deaths, legitimations, arrivals and departures of strangers, contagious diseases. III. Statistical returns from the various municipal departments, viz. 1. Building permits. 2. Building alterations. 3. Dwelling-house alterations. 4. Completed buildings. 5. Fire service. 6. Realty transfers. 7. Drinking water supply. 8. Street cleaning. 9. Sewerage. 10. Municipal electric works. 11. Traffic conditions. 12. Transients in hotels and lodging houses and their nativity. 13. Public meetings (the number authorized, policed and broken up, resp.). 14. Public baths. 15. Municipal abattoir. 16. Municipal disinfecting plant. 17. Municipal savings bank. 18. Invalidity and old age insurance. 19. Membership, by trades, of compulsory and voluntary sick insurance. 20. Workhouse. 21. Homeless. 22. Beggars. 23. Population of city asylums and hospitals. 24.

Care of the poor. 25. Orphans. 26. Dependent and delinquent children. 27. Larger hospitals of Berlin. 28. Care of the insane. 29. Hospitals for contagious diseases. 30. Municipal refuges. 31. Labor conditions. 32. Mass meetings. 33. Occupational and industrial tax. 34. Municipal food inspections.

—— Wochenberichte des statistischen Ants der Stadt Berlin. Jahrg. 41. 1912. no. 14–29. Week beginning March 31 to July 20.

Vital statistics only.

Boston, Mass. Monthly bulletin of the statistics department, October-December, 1911. v. 13, no. 10–12. p. 127–168. 4°.

1. Meteorological observations. 2. Movement of population. 3. Cremations. 4. Interments. 5. Buildings permits issued. 6. Movement of institutions population. 7. Immigration statistics. 8. Fires, insurance and losses. 9. Health department. (Bureau of cattle inspection. Buildings ordered vacated or demolished. Bureau of milk inspection. Bureau of disinfection. Bureau of sanitary inspection.) 10. Library. 11. Realty transfers and mortgages. 12. Employment certificates issued by school board. 13. Police department. 14. Public schools. 15. Coal statistics. 16. Public baths. 17. National bank statistics. 18. Commercial statistics, Port of Boston (Number and tonnage of foreign vessels. Value of imports and exports. Number and tonnage of coastwise vessels). 19. Receipts of fish. 20. Statistics relating to flour supply. 21. Museum of Fine Arts. Appendix. Summary tables for 1911. Comparative interest in referenda and election contests, 1890–1911.

Buenos Aires, City. Monthly bulletin of municipal statistics. 26th year. no. 1–4. 1912, January–April. f°.

Contents are always the same, viz.: Meteorology and hygiene. Migration of population (i.e., arrivals and departures of vessels and passengers, immigration and emigration, the immigrants classified by nationalities). Hospitals, etc., i.e., movement of population of hospitals, homes, lunatic asylums and night shelters, and registry of prostitutes. Vital statistics. Food and kindred products (i.e., operations at the slaughter houses, superintendence of markets, sanitary inspection of food and animals at points of arrival, municipal chemical laboratory, bakeshops). Prisons. Police statistics. Economy (i.e., sales of landed estates, mortgages, nationality of sellers and buyers of the former, and of mortgagors and mortgagees).

Chemnitz, Germany. Monatliche Mitteilungen des statistischen Amts der Stadt Chemnitz. Jahrg. 9, no. 11–12. 1912, January Jahrg. 10, no. 1–3. February–April.

Contents are always the same, viz. 1. Movement of population. 2. Arrivals and departures of transients. 3. Marriages and divorces. 4. Births and deaths. 5. Sickness. 6. Ambulance service. 7. Meteorological observations. 8. Water consumption. 9. Building operations. 10. Chemical laboratory. 11. Meat inspection. 12. Street railway traffic. 13. Municipal savings bank. 14. Municipal pawnshop. 15. Fires. 16. Municipal legal aid bureau. 17. Labor bureau. 18. Sick insurance. 19. Libraries.

Coruña, Spain. Estadistica demografico sanitaria. Año 10, num. 103–107. 1912, January–May. 4°.

Contents are always the same, viz.: Meteorology. Vital statistics. Hospitals. Disinfecting plant. Sanitary inspection. Vaccination. Consumption of meat. Food inspection. Police. Street inspection. Fire service. Cemeteries. Prices of food stuffs. Anti-tuberculosis dispensary. Contagious diseases. Maritime sanitation.

These numbers are issued together with the Boletin del ayuntamiento, for which see above under "Administration in General.

Duisburg, Germany. Statistische Monatsberichte. Jahrg. 5, no. 1–4. 1912, January–April.

Contents are always the same, viz.: 1. Movement of population. 2. Health and public safety (contagious diseases, city disinfecting plant, hospitals, baths, chemical laboratory, accidents, fires). 3. Poor (numbers assisted and cause of dependence, homeless). 4. Welfare service (legal aid bureau, labor bureau, industrial court, commercial court, sick insurance). 5. Libraries. 6. Freight traffic (railway, harbor, bridge and ferry). 7. Food stuff supply (abattoir and cattle markets, wholesale prices of meat and grains, retail prices of meats, eggs, butter, etc., gas, water and electric light supply. 8. City credit institutions (savings bank, pawnshop). 9. Building permits. 10. Meteorological observations.

Düsseldorf, Germany. Statistische Monatsberichte der Stadt Düsseldorf (bi-monthly). Jahrg. 11, no. 1–6. 1912, January–March.

The two numbers of each month are designated respectively edition A and B. The contents of the numbers are always the same, viz.: Edition A: 1. Movement of population. 2. Health and public safety (baths, chemical laboratory, accidents, fires). 3. Traffic, part 1 (street railways, railway freight, harbors, city warehouse). 4. River and groundwater gauges. 5. Food stuffs, light and power supply (cattle market and abattoir, retail prices of food stuffs, city gas and water works and electric light plant). 6. Labor conditions (labor bureau). 7. City credit institutions (savings bank, pawnshop, mortgage bureau). 8. Meteorological observations. 9. Building permits. Edition B: 1. Health and public safety, part 2 (hospitals, maternity homes). 2. Traffic, part 2 (bridge and ferry, narrow gauge passenger and freight). 3. Labor conditions (sick insurance, etc., industrial and commercial court, labor and domestic service registrations, municipal laborers). 4. Light and power supply, part 2 (city gas and water works and electric light plant). 5. Poor (numbers assisted, shelter for the homeless). 6. Schools, libraries and museums. 7. Stocks and bonds

Florence, Italy. Bolletino statistico mensile del comune di Firenze. 1912, no. 3–6. March–June. f°.

Contents are always the same, viz.: Meteorological observations. Movement of population. Births. Deaths. Marriages. Migration of population. Charities. Criminal statistics. Disinfecting plant. Police. Museums. Baths. Fire service. Cemeteries. Tram and bus traffic. Causes of death. Laboratory. Vaccination. Veterinary service. Sanitary inspection. Contagious diseases. Prices of food stuffs.

Halle a. S., Germany. Statistische Monatsberichte. Herausgegeben vom statistischen Amt. Jahrg. 6, no. 3–6. 1912, March–June.

Contents are always the same with the exception of the supplement, which changes with every number, viz.: Meteorological observations. Statistics of population. Movement and migration of population. Industrial statistics (realty transfers, building operations, retail prices, wholesale prices). Social statistics (sick insurance, invalidity and old age insurance, employment bureau, wages of municipal laborers). Administrative statistics (poor, public wards, libraries, legal aid bureau, city infants and children's homes, milk kitchen, commercial and industrial courts, food inspection, shelter for the homeless). Municipal undertakings (cattle market and abattoir, gas works, water works, electricity plant, savings bank, pawnshop, fire service, street railways). The supplements to the various numbers are as follows: No. 3. Transients in Halle. No. 4. Census of unoccupied dwellings, May 1, 1912. No. 5. Effect on the city of the removal of manufacturing plants to the suburbs. No. 6. Social survey of the population of Halle.

Johannesburg, Transvaal. Municipal statistics (monthly). 1912, April–June.

Contents are always the same viz.: 1. Deaths with causes, births, burials. 2. Buildings. 3. Electricity and gas supply department. 4. Municipal tramways. 5. Fires. 6. Water. 7. Native wages. 8. Sanitary service. 9. Weights and measures. 10. Livestock market. 11–12. Municipal abattoirs.

Konigsberg i. Pr. Monatsberichte des statistischen Amtes der Stadt. Jahrg. 20. 1912, March–April.

Contents are always the same, viz.: 1. Meteorological observations. 2. Population (comparative, by months, for preceding 9 years). 3. Movement of population. 4. Births (sex, condition and legitimacy). 5. Marriages. 6. Deaths. 7. Migration of population. 8. Reported cases of illness. 9. Hospital. 10. Abattoir. 11. Wholesale prices of meat. 12. Retail prices of principal food stuffs. 13. Municipal water works. 14. Municipal pawnshop. 15. Savings bank. 16. Poorhouse. 17. Sewerage. 18. Municipal electric trams. 19. Libraries. 20. New industries. 21. Employment bureau. 22. Sick insurance. 23. Reading rooms. 24. Commercial and industrial court. 25. Saloons. 26. Railway freight traffic. 27–29. Harbor traffic.

Milan, Italy. Bollettino statistico mensile. Anno 28. 1912, March–June.

Sanitary inspection, vital statistics, abattoirs, price of food stuffs, charities, building construction, fires, trams. Includes also a summary of council minutes.

Montevideo, Uruguay. Boletin mensual de Estadistica municipal. Año 10. no. 101–105. 1912, January–May.

Munich, Germany. Wochenberichte des statistischen Amtes der Stadt. 1912, no. 15–30. Week beginning April 7–July 27.

Contents are always the same, viz.: 1. Deaths by causes. 2. Births and deaths for past 12 weeks. 3. Arrivals in the larger hospitals. 4. Applications and withdrawals from the local sick insurance bureau. 5. Prices of food stuffs. 6. Wholesale prices for fruit and vegetables. 7. Warehouse. 8. Cattle market and abattoir. 9. Prices for cattle. 10. Climatic conditions.

—— Statistischer Monatsbericht der Stadt. 1912, March–May.

Contents are always the same, viz.: 1. Meteorological observations. 2–5. Movement of population. 6. Marriages. 7–8. Hospitals. 9. Red Cross and other sanitary and rescue services. 10. Burials. 11–13. Cattle market and prices. 14. Warehouse. 15. Milk supply. 16–18. Prices of food stuffs. 19 Food stuff inspection. 20. Municipal baths. 21. Water supply. 22. Municipal gas works. 23. Municipal electric plant. 24. Building inspection. 25. Building construction. 26. Realty transfers. 27. Municipal housing bureau. 28. Coal supply. 29. Stocks and bonds. 30. Municipal savings bank. 31. Municipal pawnshop. 32–33. Sick and accident insurance. 34. Municipal labor bureau. 35. Municipal arbitration bureau. 36. Industrial court. 37. Commercial court. 38. Public poor relief. 39.

Movement of transients. 40. Sunday and holiday traffic. 41. Fire service. 42. Lighting conductor inspection. 43. Domestic refuse removal. 44. Prices of milk in the larger Bavarian and in some non-Bavarian cities.

Street Railways

See also above "Statistics" (Chemnitz, Halle a. S., Johannesburg, Königsberg, Milan).

CHICAGO, Ill. Passenger subways for Chicago. Synopsis of an address to the Irish Fellowship, March 2, 1912, by Mr. John Ericson, chairman of the Harbor and Subway Commission, Chicago. 16 p. 8°.

—— Report of the Harbor and Subway Commission on an independent system of subways. February 1912. 7 p. 4°.

FREIBURG I. Br., Germany. Vorlage des Stadtrats an den Bürgerausschuss vom 1 Juli, 1912, über den ausbau der elektrischen Strassenbahn. 34 p, 2 leaves, 8 maps. 4°.

Streets

See also above "Administration in General" (Boston—cost of repaving; Denver—lampost signs, Springfield) also "Statistics" (Berlin—cleaning; Coruña).

HARTFORD, Conn. Fortieth annual report of the board of Street Commissioners for the year ending March 31, 1912. 60 p. 8°.

Hartford appropriated for the fiscal year mentioned the sum of $452,229 for the work of the street department. The commission cleans, lights and sprinkles the streets as well as repairs them. It also contracts for the removal of garbage and waste, and it maintains a forestry bureau and a nursery. The garbage contract expires June 1, 1913, and it is the intention to have the removal of waste undertaken by the street department. Meanwhile the superintendent proposes thoroughly to study the subject of waste collection and removal, and anticipates that it may be necessary to call in the services of an expert to report on a proper method.

Taxation

See also above "Administration in General" (Berlin—unearned increment tax; Boston—liability of collector), and below "Statistics" (Berlin—occupational and industrial).

ELBERFELD, Germany. Statistisches Amt. Die Gemeindesteuern des Jahres 1911 in den preussischen Grossstädten, den selbstständigen rheinisch-westfälischen Stadtkreisen und den übrigen Kreisfreien städten Preussens. 11 Fortsetzung. 12 p. f°.

A very useful compilation relating to Prussian municipal taxes. It is divided into two parts, viz.: direct and indirect taxes. In the former are included grund- und Gebäude steuer, Steuer vom Gewerbetrieb, Betriebssteuer and Warenhaussteuer. In the latter are included Wirtschaftskonzessionssteuer, Umsatzsteuer; Wertzuwachssteuer, Biersteuer, Hunde- und Pferdesteuer and Lustbarkeitssteuer.

NEW YORK CITY. Department of taxes and assessments. Report for the year ending March 31, 1912. (City Record, August 2, 1912. p. 6379–6393.)

Nominally a report for the preceding quarter, it contains a summary of the operations of the preceding year.

NORFOLK, Va. An ordinance imposing taxes on property, persons and licenses for the payment of interest on the city debt and to meet the general appropriations for the year beginning July 1, 1912. 56 p. 8°.

Telephone Service

See above "Administration in General" (Denver—rates).

Traffic Regulation

See above "Administration in General" (Denver—regulation), "Charters and Ordinances" (Aachen—taxicab; Cedar Rapids—public vehicles; Duisburg), "Statistics" (Berlin, Düsseldorf, Munich—Sunday and holiday).

Tuberculosis Eradication

See also above "Public Health" (Detroit), "Statistics" (Coruña).

FLORENCE, Italy. La mortalità per tubereulosi a Firenze nel quinquennio 1907–1911. Communicazione al vii congresso Internationale per la lotta contro la Tuberculosi in Roma il 14–20 April, 1912. 45 p., 1 leaf, 4 plates. 8°.

Vocational Training

See above "Administration in General" (Berlin).

Warehousing

See above "Statistics" (Düsseldorf, Munich).

Water Supply

See above "Administration in General" (Milwaukee, Springfield), and "Fire Service" (Kansas City), also "Statistics" (Berlin Johannesburg, Königsberg, Munich).

Bangor, Me. Thirty-seventh annual report of the Bangor water board for the municipal year 1911–12. 62 p., 9 folding tables. 8°.

Canada. Marine and Fisheries Department. Papers relating to the application of the Sanitary District of Chicago for permission to divert 10,000 cubic feet of water per second from Lake Michigan. Ottawa, 1912. xviii, 270 p. 2 charts. 8°.

At a hearing before the Secretary of War, U. S. A., on March 27, 1912, the Government of Canada submitted briefs and an argument in opposition to the application of the Sanitary District.

France. Caisse Nationale des Recherches Scientifiques. Recherches sur l'epuration biologique et chimique des eaux d'égout effectuées à l'Institut Pasteur de Lille et à la Station Expérimentale de la Madeleine. Par A. Calmette et E. Rolants. 7e volume. Paris, 1912. 357 p., 1 leaf, 2 plates. 14 graphic charts. 20 illustr. 8°.

Chapters on pollution of the sea by waste waters of N. Y. City; progress of purification in France (Lille and Toulon), in Great Britain (London, Bushey, Frome, Guilford, Leeds, Leigh on Sea, Manchester, Mowbray, Northampton, Prescot), in Germany (Blankenburg, Bochum, Elberfeld, Erfurt, Essen, Halberstadt, Hannover, Cassel, Mühlhausen i. Th., Quedlinburg, Chemnitz, Düsseldorf, Elbing, Pasen, Rheydt, Wilmersdorf), in America (Boston, Philadelphia, Reading). The greater part of the volume is taken up with a consideration of the various processes of purification.

Glen Falls, N. Y. Fourth annual report of the board of water commissioners for the year ended March 1, 1912. 39 p. 8°.

On p. 32 is a table showing yearly water rent receipts 1875 to 1912.

Houston, Texas. Annual report of the water department for the year ending February 29, 1912. 57 (1) p., 2 leaves, 4 plates, 1 map. 8°.

New Britain, Conn. Fifty-fifth annual report of the board of water commissioners for the year ending March 31, 1912. 21 p. 8°.

Pages 20–21 comprise a table showing annual receipts from water rents from 1858 to 1911 inclusive.

Rockford, Ill. Report on the enlargement and extension of the water supply and distribution system of the city of Rockford. By J. W. Alvord, D. H. Maury and D. W. Mead, water supply commissioners. 1911. 107(1) p. 8°.

United States Hygienic Laboratory. Bulletin 83. Sewage pollution of interstate and international waters. By Allan J. McLaughlin. 1912. 296 p. 91 charts. 39 maps. 8°.

Typhoid fever in American cities, polluted water supplies; sewage disposal; comparative economy of water purification and sewage purification; safe water supplies by filtration or treatment. The sewer systems and water works and the prevalence of typhoid in 73 American cities affected by the waters of the Great Lakes are studied.

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